A Strategy for the Vocational Education and Training Structure of the Beauty Profession in Taiwan, with Lens Comparative Analysis of the UK

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to review Taiwan's training structure through a lens comparative study on the UK's training approach for beauty professionals.

Due to the distinctive differences between Taiwan and the UK, the methodological approach was designed differently for each in order to meet the aim and objectives. Apart from document analysis used for both countries, auto-ethnography was conducted in the UK; while in Taiwan observations and expert interviews were employed to identify the fundamental causes of the mismatch between education and industry. A strategy was proposed, based on the strong points identified from the UK, to improve the current structure of Taiwan.

Three key features are identified from the UK that could be considered to alleviate Taiwan's fundamental problems. They are respectively: National Occupational Standards, a Professional Body and a Quality Assurance process. Three key features are new to Taiwan, so that their implementation requires time and collaborative effort from the Taiwanese government, vocational education and industry.

These features were embedded in three proposed models. Three models were proposed as a holistic structure to include all relevant stakeholders. The three models are the Service, Work Placement and Nurturing models.

The impact of this study on Taiwan training structure will be substantial because it is the first step to bring all relevant stakeholders to communicate and interact through setting an agreed standard and through the treatment service framework provided by the Service Model. Secondly, the Work Placement Model provides a structure for assessment in workplaces to ensure that learning takes place in the workplace and to create an opportunity of knowledge sharing, allowing the theory to meet the practice. Thirdly, an overall Nurturing model of the training for beauty professionals is developed, with a professional body to provide a platform for all stakeholders, including

government. Ultimately, everyone involved in the profession would be benefited and more importantly, the broad concepts and models might be of use to other domains.

Acknowledgements

The acknowledgement of my Master dissertation stated that any great achievement requires three indispensable criteria 'cosmic timing (天時), favourable earth condition (地利) and human harmony (人和)'.

The first and last person to whom I would like to express my sincere gratitude is my first supervisor, Dr. Emily Baines. She is professional, dedicated, patient and, more importantly, kind. Her guidance helped me in all the time of research and writing of this thesis. So many times, I considered giving up, but she never gave up on me. It is this that kept me going. Also, my second supervisor, Prof. Ho, inspired me to initiate this project.

This research journey, involving auto-ethnographic study of the UK and interviews in Taiwan, would not have succeeded without massive help from a lot of people along the way throughout the study. In Taiwan, Nee Lo, in particular, generously helped and shared her expertise with me. In between, this mission was accomplished by many people's assistance. My friends and colleagues have been brilliant and knew very well when to give me a good kick. I cannot name them one by one due to the word limits, but at every stage of my journey, there was always someone there for me.

Last but not least, I thank my dearest mum and my two older sisters and brothers-in-law who are the firmest support behind me.

Declaration

During the period of registered study, in which this thesis was prepared, the author has not been registered for any other academic award or qualification.

The material included in this thesis has not been submitted, wholly or in part, for any award or qualification other than that for which it is submitted.

I declare that the contents of this submission are wholly my own work.

I-Chun Hsiao May 2016

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

Abbreviation/Acronym	Description
AMSE	Artistic Make-up and Special Effects
BTEC	Business and Technology Education Council
CEPD	Economic Planning and Development
C&G	City & Guilds of London Institute
CHEs	College Higher Educations
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
EQA	External Quality Assurance
EV	External Verifier
FE	Further Education
Fds	Foundation Degrees
GAIPB	Government Appointed Impartial Professional Body
HE	Higher Education
HNC	Higher National Certificate
HND	Higher National Diploma
HTVE	Higher Technological and Vocational Education
HVET	Higher Vocational Education and Training
IQA	Internal Quality Assurance
ITEC	International Therapy Examination Council
IV	Internal Verifier
IVQs	International Vocational Qualifications
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
MOE	Ministry of Education (Taiwan)
NAOS	Nationally Agreed Occupational Standard
NOL	National Occupational License
NOS	National Occupational Standard

NVQs	National Vocational Qualifications
OLS	Occupational License System
QA	Quality Assurance
QAA	The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education
QCF	Qualifications and Credit Framework
RQF	Regulated Qualification Framework
SC	Skills Certification
TAQA	Training, Assessment, Quality Assurance
TVE	Technological and Vocational Education
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VHS	Vocational High School
VRQs	Vocational Related Qualifications
VTCT	Vocational Training Charitable Trust

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The thesis sets out to examine Taiwan's vocational education and training system for beauty professionals, through a lens study of the UK's equivalent. The focus of the study is to identify the fundamental problems in Taiwan's nurturing structure, to propose an effective strategy for improving the system and to further enhance professional competence in the Taiwanese beauty industry. The term 'nurture' is used throughout the thesis to refer to a learning journey, including an overview of formal and informal vocational education as well as industrial training. Existing works using this term include Dadds (1997), Liu (2013) and the Taiwanese Ministry of Education (MOE 2010a). The reason for using 'nurturing' instead of 'education' is because some inner qualities and attributes may not be taught but could be nurtured or developed over time. A nurturing system is thus a collective term including formal and informal vocational education and industrial training. This takes a wider perspective than studies that focus on vocational education programmes. There is a distinctive difference in the term 'nurturing' used throughout the main study and the final 'Nurturing model', as the latter is to demonstrate the ideal system of nurturing while the former is to explain the phenomena and process involved in vocational education and training as well as professional development.

This chapter begins by stating the problems in Taiwan's nurturing structure and presenting a background of changes in the beauty industry that impact on the development of the nurturing structure. The main aim, its objectives and research questions follow. The methodology and the research motivation and position are briefly highlighted. Finally, the thesis' structure is outlined.

1.2 Research problem

Recent studies suggest the existence of a gap between education and industry in Taiwan (Chen 2000; Xu 2003; Du 2004; Yang et al. 2005; Lin et al. 2008;

MOE 2010a; C.-H. Xu 2013; G.-H. Xu 2013; Lin & Chen 2014; Lin et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2015; Chen 2016), despite a universal concern regarding skills mismatching (Davos-Klosters 2014). Chen (2000) and Huang (2003) have highlighted this issue particularly within the beauty industry. Chen further criticises that the Taiwanese government has never paid attention to beauty education and has rushed into establishing the programme without proper education resources fully prepared such as qualified beauty lecturers, teaching materials and so forth. The present research challenges the current practice and application of vocational education and training in the Taiwanese beauty industry, on the grounds that its purpose should be to prepare graduates for employment and the competences they are equipped with should allow them to be able to maintain their employment or to transfer their competences between appointments.

The Taiwanese government is faced with a substantial talent shortage, despite the emphasis placed on the cultivation of such talent in its National Development Plan (CEPD 2005; MOE 2010a; MOE 2012). It has indeed been aware of this issue since 1990 (Liu et al. 2015). The problem still remains, indicating that the fundamental causes of the problem have not been found, the government having instead treated its symptoms. Fan (2014) observes that Taiwan lacks both the vision and effective strategies for implementing its developmental plans, and expresses his concern that the country's unemployment rate may reach its highest level within the next 10 years if the government, and particularly the Ministry of Education, does not take strategic action to improve Taiwan’s educational development.

Liu (2013) concludes the that a gap between Taiwanese education and industry has an impact on national economic development, leading in turn to high unemployment rates. He also points out three serious structural problems regarding collaboration between education and industry: the stagnation of industrial development, an imbalance of nurturing talents and ineffective

research and development for education and industry. The Taiwanese government has evidently failed to bridge this divide.

Zhang and Yuan (2014) analyse the current status on the integration of learning at university and applying for work. They state five reasons for the mismatch between education and industry in general in Taiwan: education is out of touch with trends (Du 2006; MOE 2013), the imbalance between education and industry (Fang 2010; National Development Council 2014; Lin et al. 2014), the insufficiency of work placement opportunities (Huang et al. 1996; Lin et al. 2014), the defective system of skills certification for professional licenses and the lack of priority the industry gives to professional competence when recruiting. The authors do highlight the issues, but their recommendations are too broad to enable common ground between the relevant stakeholders to be found so that the problems can be effectively solved.

The problems mentioned above occur mainly in the interstice between education and industry. Firstly, the majority of lecturers have been criticised for their lack of industrial experience (Du 2004; MOE 2010a; Zhang 2012). The Taiwanese government has urged them to update that experience through collaborative projects alongside their teaching careers (see Section 5.3.1.2). However, without appropriate supporting mechanisms, it is difficult for lecturers to do this at the same time as achieving their academic career requirements.

Secondly, the imbalance between educational supply and industrial demand could be caused by the mismatch identified by Hsiao et al. (2006), with the former not being able to provide the professional expertise required by the latter. There are two possible explanations: educational institutions could be misintepreting industrial specifications, or the industry could be issuing no clear requirements – or indeed, none at all. There is thus either a lack of effective communication between supply and demand, or of agreed standards to which both sectors can align themselves.

A third problem concerns the engagement of industry and the collaboration between education and industry. The collaboration can succeed only if the various goals can be harmonised and complement each other to facilitate achieving the goals effectively (Dooley & Kirk 2007:331). In Taiwan, the responsibility for providing work placement opportunities seems to be seen as that of the education sector, not that of industry – however, difficulty of collaboration results in insufficient opportunities. According to Lin et al. (2008), 44.2% of the industries that have offered a few places for work placement. Zhou (2013) maintains that this inefficient collaboration is caused by the government's ineffective systems and lack of incentives for both education and industry. It is important to note that this situation is affected not only by the number of work placement opportunities that the educational sector could provide, but also by the advantageous opportunities that industry could offer.

The Skills Certification (SC[1]) is another major issue in occupational and professional development, one that causes severe discontinuities between education and industry in Taiwan's beauty industry. The purpose of launching the Occupational License System (OLS) was to raise skill levels, foster talents to improve productivity and also as a foundation for the occupational licensing system: the qualification is thus considered as an equivalent to academic ones (Huang n.d.). This is somewhat ironic because the content for the SC test in the field of beauty has never been updated since it was launched two decades ago (TVBS 2012) (see Section 5.3.1.3). However, the OLS is merely a policy embedded in the Vocational Training Act: the legislation has not yet been put into force (Tsao 2005).

[1] Skills Certification (SC) is an authenticated procedure including knowledge and skill tests for National Occupational License (NOL) within the Occupational License System (OLS) in Taiwan.

The government has failed to impose the policies and regulations onto the industry to acknowledge the OLS, but it has done so for education. The beauty curriculum in particular is almost designed around the qualification in order to achieve a high success rate. This has led to the distortion of the beauty curriculum (Huang n.d.; Chen 2004; Yeh 2010). Huang and Yeh highlight the restriction on the breadth and depth of curricular knowledge and skills resulting from this kind of distortion. The OLS is also beset by several fatal errors. Chen's (2004) interview data underlines two, the first of which is the SC test itself. This is too rigid, outdated, formalised and theoretical. More importantly, it lacks credibility in the beauty industry because it does not meet industrial requirements. The second error involves SC assessors and examiners. The qualification and selection of assessors, as well as the processes by which the quality of the assessment process is matched to the assessors' abilities, are just some of the factors indicating a lack of fairness and openness. This shows that Taiwan lacks a system of quality assurance to ensure superior assessments.

Recent years have witnessed increasing public concern regarding frequent workplace incidents resulting from an insufficient regulatory framework in the beauty industry. Some controversies regarding industrial practices have called practitioners' competence into question. It must be acknowledged that, while having been formalised in SC tests, health and safety and hygiene procedures have not been properly implemented in teaching, learning, assessment and practice. It means that Taiwanese beauty practitioners and professionals have very little awareness of and concern for health and safety and hygiene. Section 5.3.1.3 contains a more detailed discussion of the OLS.

Last but not least, the Deputy Minister of Education, De-Hua Chen, points out that graduates lack the foundations of professional competence, and that their ability to apply theory in practice is insufficient (Liu et al. 2015). This highlights the inadequate functionality of Vocational Education and Training (VET) in

Taiwan. Meanwhile, a failure to bridge the gap may result in graduates lacking confidence when entering the job market.

The gap between education and industry is paralleled by another, in the vocational route from Further Education (FE) to Higher Education (HE), and this despite the Taiwanese government's promotion of consistent four-year learning from FE to HE level since 1997, with the aim of achieving just such a seamless transition (Huang 2011). Liu (2004) maintains that the FE to HE syllabus not only lacks coherence and logic, but is also repetitive and disjointed in Taiwan. He also highlights the lack of set standards in HE, although FE has a curricular framework. The transition between FE and HE institutions, or even between HE ones themselves, is thus prone to disjuncture. Hsiao et al. (2006) also point out that many technological universities allow lecturers to develop curricula without considering industrial needs, while their lecturers are considered to be lacking industrial experience (Du 2004; MOE 2010a; Zhang 2012).

The boundaries between FE and Vocational High Schools (VHS) on the one hand and HE and Technological Universities (equivalent to the UK's Polytechnics) on the other are not clearly drawn (Chang 2005). Overlaps and disconnections in education would discourage advanced learners from developing their competences as their careers develop. Not only is this a waste of educational resources, but it also leads to a situation in which graduates' educational qualifications are more advanced, but their career progression is impeded.

This inability to meet the industry's requirements and expectations could increase staff turnover and shorten industrial career cycles. It is thus imperative to identify the fundamental causes of this mismatch. However, it is worth considering whether the supply-end (education) should merely meet the requirements of the demand-end (industry) or transcend those requirements in order to create demand for them.

The concern these problems raise is that the relevant stakeholders – government, education, industry and individuals – cannot coordinate their efforts. Each stakeholder's features and functionalities are distinctive, and it would be difficult to harmonise these without a platform on which they could communicate and interact, or a standard by which they could do so. Either they lack awareness of the issues, or the fundamental components that would allow them to function effectively have not been discovered.

The reason for studying the UK and using the knowledge to compare with Taiwan is because the UK was one of the pioneers in developing a 'competence-based' approach for VET (Lester 2015:132). Cheng (2010:40) also highlights that UK is the earliest country among the West implementing collaborative vocational training between education and industry since the 1880s. Also, City & Guilds' International Vocational Qualifications (IVQs) and other relevant beauty certificates are widely accepted in Taiwan. Although other countries such as the USA (Huang 2003), Germany (Chen et al. 2008) and Japan (Hong & Huang 2003; Hsu 2003) have been discussed as case studies and possible exemplars, it was found that these have had limited influence on the Taiwanese beauty training system. Whereas, the UK professional certificates in beauty are widely accepted. For instance, IVQs Beauty Therapy level 2 are recommended to the beauty graduates alongside of their qualification study. Although the UK's VET is not a perfect system, a number of Taiwanese studies (Wu & Chen 2001; Wu & Shi 2004; Zhuang 2007; Wu 2011) have valued the UK's experience regarding the development of VET highly.

Although there is a slightly different educational structure between England and Scotland, 'the UK' is used as a broad term to indicate the training system of England (86.7%), Wales (4.1%) and Northern Ireland (2.8%) as only 6.4% of the workforce in the beauty industry is in Scotland, according to HABIA's report (2016).

1.3 Background of the research

The beauty industry has a substantial economic scale and has been continuously expanding. However, the figures given from different sources vary substantially (see Section 2.2.1). These widely varied figures exemplify the complicated nature of the beauty industry. Its business potential includes not only perfumes, cosmetics and toiletries but also a variety of beauty aids and treatment services, all of which are difficult to quantify. The treatments offered in this sector will be detailed in Appendix A. This industry is significant not just because it has economic value to Taiwan and globally, but also it has social and psychological value to human beings.

The beauty industry is a human relations one with a wide range of component lines. In recent years a significant increase in the variety of facial and body treatments, nail services, spas, aromatherapy and massage treatments on offer has revealed the opportunities inherent in this booming field (BTEC National 2009). The beauty industry no longer focuses merely on enhancing or improving appearance, but also takes well-being into account (Smith et al. 2009; Loh 2008). In this case, the levels of job requirements for beauty professionals in the beauty sector have also changed from physical labour to include intellectual capacity, emotional responsiveness and perhaps also creative ability.

However, the balance between supply and demand will be lost if the available professionals cannot adapt to change or is not competent to meet the industry's needs or customers' requirements. The latter are more varied than they were decades ago: customers now demand not only physical enhancement but psychological satisfaction. According to Pine II and Gilmore (1999), a projected economic model requires a distinctive experience. This could offer inspirational – indeed transformational – pleasure, knowledge, diversion and beauty. The job market is segmented and employment opportunities are clearly more difficult to

obtain. The problem is whether professionals are aware of, and prepared for, impending changes in the prevailing economic model.

The beauty industry's professionalism has certainly been facing a significant problem. Its practitioners must update their knowledge not only of cosmetic product ingredients and their manufacturing processes, but also of advanced high-tech or medicinal equipment that supplements these treatments. All of this requires operational knowledge, a specific set of skills, and judgement. It is evident that the beauty industry's scope overlaps extensively with those of other industries and professions such as medicine, health care, fitness, technology and bio-technology. In other words, beauty professionals also face *a combination of co-operation and competition* with other domains (see Section 2.2.1).

The last two decades have seen increasingly rapid advances in the fields of technology, bio-technology and the World Wide Web, which not only shapes modes of living and thinking but also drives economic transformation. This poses a challenge to industrial structures and affects the levels of competence required of every workforce. Adaption to these challenges has demanded the universal cultivation of talents (Lin et al. 2008).

Rifkin (2014) also sees an emergent economic paradigm, the Collaborative Commons, starting to transform patterns of living. He predicts that the future will bring a near-zero marginal cost society, which will inter alia make the industry much more unstable, and profoundly affect the educational process, working patterns and means of communication. In other words, a new economy will not only shape our lives, but will also overturn accepted modes of thinking completely. E-learning is perhaps the best illustration of changes in educational processes: it will become the mainstream learning approach, benefiting a greater number of people around the world than traditional educational modes of delivery at next to no marginal cost. This will enable

knowledge to be accrued and experience shared on a global scale, thereby stimulating collaborative creativity (Rifkin 2014).

Although some beauty treatment services will unquestionably still require physical contact, the industry will not remain unaffected by these changes. The competition among business groups and professionals will intensify, with commercial creativity posing constant challenges as business scales are reduced (Rifkin 2014).

Since everybody, including beauty students, can learn various makeup and skincare techniques online for free, it is therefore worth determining what better offers beauty professionals and educators can provide. The era of the Internet of Things (IoT) is instigating the third industrial revolution (Rifkin 2014:15). Soon, people will be able to print their makeup at home through their personal 3D printers (Milkert 2014). According to Rifkin (2014:77), 3D printing technology is going to bring infinite possibilities, as everybody can be a 'prosumer'. The question is whether beauty education and the industry are prepared for changes, and whether its graduates are ready for the competences required by the new economy.

The beauty industry's business structure is characterised by low barriers to entry (Panteva 2011; SSA 2013). This results in a quality control problem, especially in the absence of any legal prerequisites for practitioners to register with professional bodies or authorities. The changes in beauty professionals' role are from being presentable at the counter performing simple tasks related to demonstrating and selling products or undertaking basic treatments, to becoming multifaceted in a wide range of skills. Technological development not only injects new elements and working methods into the industry but also allows customers to access and exchange information more easily. A beautician may now be required to treat the mind as well as the body, in order to provide a holistic service (Black 2004; Sheen 2006; Loh 2008; Connelly 2013; Zeng n.d.).

The industry's success is often measured in terms of revenue and product ranges, while the important contributions made by practitioners and professionals are often overlooked. The subject of this study is therefore the consideration of the nurturing system for beauty professionals in Taiwan.

1.4 Research aim and objectives

In light of the gap between education and industry, this research aims to analyse the Taiwanese beauty sector using a comparative lens approach focusing on the UK, in order to identify the relevant issues and to develop a model by which to nurture beauty professionals' development. This research therefore seeks to attain the following objectives:

- To analyse the UK beauty education sector in order to identify any effective and practical means of enhancing the nurturing structure by which Taiwanese beauty professionals are developed.
- To review the Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure in order to identify relevant issues.
- To identify the competences expected and required at the graduate level, by education and industry, in order to fulfil a beauty professional's role in Taiwan.
- To propose a model that could improve beauty professionals' competences within the nurturing structure.
- To make recommendations for the development and improvement of the Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure.

1.5 Research questions

The research aim and objectives outlined above lead to the following research questions:

Question 1: What features characterise the UK's approach to the effective training of beauty professionals?

Question 2: What fundamental flaws cause the gap between education and industry in Taiwan's training system for beauty professionals?

Question 3: What competences are HE beauty graduates in Taiwan expected to possess at graduation? Are there any differences between educational expectations and industrial requirements?

Question 4: What features of the UK's approach to training and development for beauty professionals could be particularly effective for bridging the gap between beauty education and the industry in Taiwan?

Question 5: What elements should constitute a model of seamless integration between the Taiwanese educational and industrial sectors for enhancing beauty professionals' competence?

1.6 Methodology

This research employs a broadly qualitative approach containing some quantitative elements. Auto-ethnography was used in the UK and observations and expert interviews in Taiwan; in each case document analysis was conducted to lay the foundation of understanding for Taiwan and the UK respectively. The distinctive cultural backgrounds and learning structures made a lens comparison, used when one component outweighs another (as Walk (1998) recommends), the most suitable for this study: in this case, Taiwan outweighs the UK. In other words, the study strategy uses one country as a lens through which to view another country's training and vocational system. The premise is that understanding both countries' systems is essential.

The UK was chosen based on the wide acceptance of its vocational certificates in beauty within Taiwan and its leading status as a developer of effective collaboration in vocational education with industry (Cheng 2010:40) (see

Section 1.2). Therefore, an understanding of the UK's training structure and collaborative approach was required. Auto-ethnographic experience was chosen as a method in order to understand the UK's nurturing structure for beauty professionals and the approach in depth, from the inside, as previous Taiwanese studies of other countries' training structure had been based on brief visits, a seminar and document analysis (see Section 4.3.2). It was intended to develop an equivalent experiential level of understanding to the researcher's previous auto-ethnographic experiences in the beauty sector of Taiwan. It could, therefore, act as a lens to view Taiwan's nurturing approach.

The present UK auto-ethnographic study includes experiences as a learner, practitioner, lecturer and assessor. It will be seen that Taiwan's problems are the study's focus, seen in the light of experience gained in the UK. Documentary analysis was also performed and a literature review conducted.

After some understanding of the UK's developmental structure was reached, an initial checklist for observing Taiwanese workplaces was drawn up. Four observations, including those of the main types of salon and home-based services, were conducted, not only to identify service problems but also to survey the service structure.

These observations were followed by 38 semi-structured interviews consisting of four pilot studies and 34 interviews. The latter were divided into two phases, the first comprising 16 semi-structured interviews of eight educational experts and another eight industrial ones. This stage was intended to identify problems and determine interviewees' approaches to tackling them.

The second phase contained 18 semi-structured interviews, nine with educational experts and another nine with industrial experts. Some experts participated in both phases. The second phase sought to identify the difference between educational expectations and industrial requirements in terms of competence and also was utilised for model testing.

This stage of the primary research resulted in the development, testing and modification of three models. The research process is shown Figure 1-1 below. The colour code was used to illustrate the development of the research design. The gradient grey indicates the central development of the study and the gradient blue specifies the methods used for the UK. The gradient orange brown explains the methods employed for collecting data in Taiwan. The pinkie purple illustrates the contributions for the study.

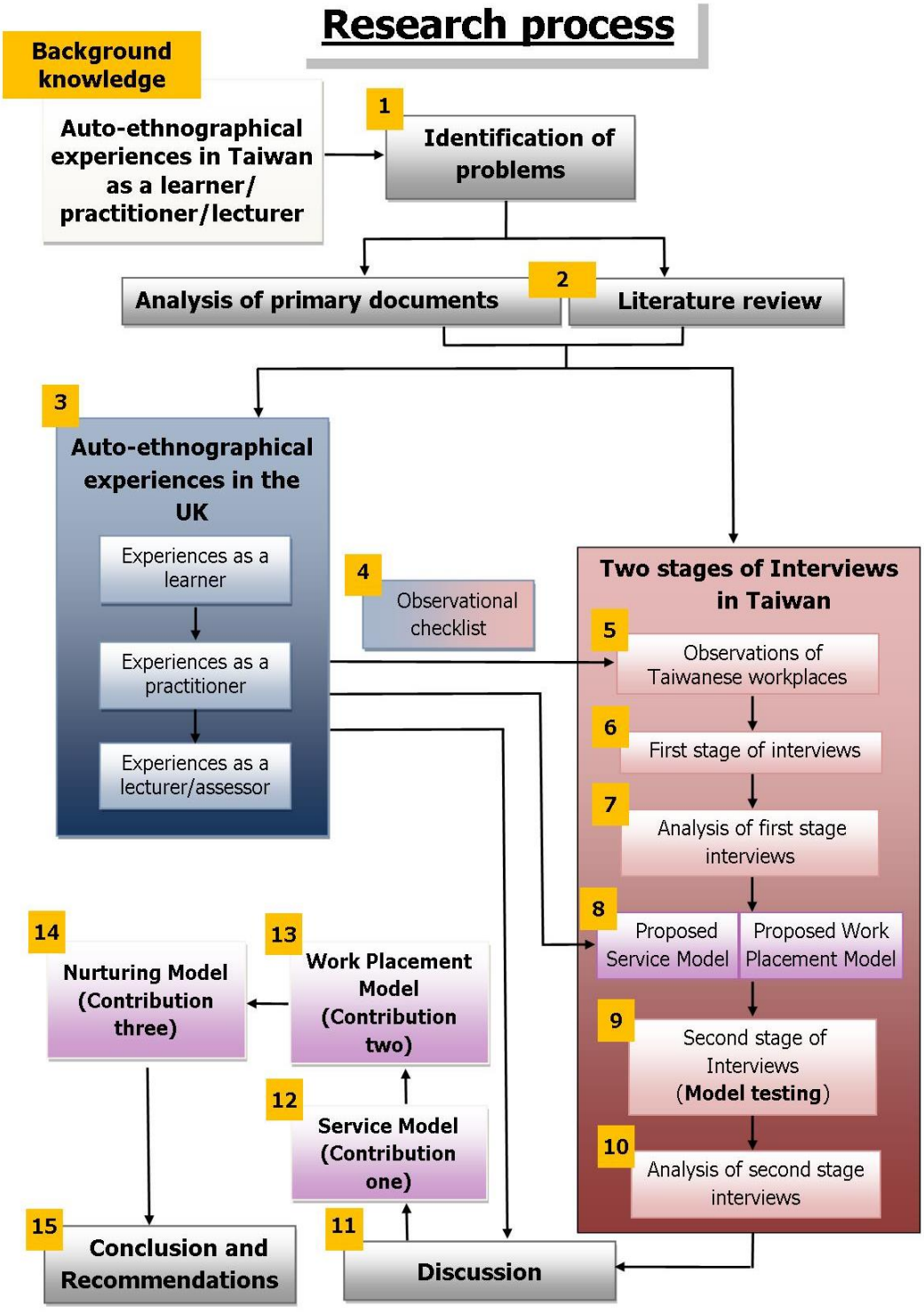


Figure 1-1: Research process

1.7 Research motivation

The initial motivation for this study was the researcher's educational background and work experience in the beauty sector in Taiwan. Her experiences from learner to practitioner to lecturer in the beauty sector brought to her notice some matters requiring improvement. The beauty-related programmes the researcher studied included Styling and Cosmetology, as well as Cosmetic Science, at vocational high school and technological university level.

She also acquired work experience as a beautician on a beauty counter, in a salon as a beauty therapist, as a freelance make-up artist, a semi-permanent cosmetic/make-up tattooist and as a teacher in Taiwanese beauty-related programmes, all of which provided additional motivation to pursue this study. Furthermore, supporting a family-owned beauty salon and fashion-related business that included cosmetics, makeup and beauty treatment services influenced interest in the subject and the choice of career.

A couple of issues were highlighted from her experience: firstly, the beauty curriculum lacked levels of development, i.e. in the HVET junior college and senior college training (see Section 2.3.1.1), no significant advanced learning took place, in order to accommodate the novice learners. Secondly, teaching and learning lacking integration. For instance, knowledge of skin physiology had not been utilised to check contraindications prior to the treatment service. Due to the fragmented learning phenomenon, no structure and standard for the whole treatment service was implemented.

As a result, graduates lacked confidence as industrial practices were varied and requirements were unknown: the vocational education did not prepare learners adequately for industrial practice as what graduates learned was considered to be dated. It was found that the graduates including the researcher heavily relied on pre-job training by the individual employer and there was limited

transferability from one job to another. These issues led to the researcher working as self-employed even though the income was unstable.

Apart from these auto-ethnographic experiences of the Taiwanese beauty industry, the opportunity was taken to use auto-ethnography to experience the UK's vocational education and training, working environment and professional development. The experience gained has been unique and reflective, even though it has proved very time-consuming. That investment in time has, however, increased understanding of the subject area.

This study is quite broad, as it attempts to outline the structure used to train and develop students, educators and practitioners in the Taiwanese beauty sector. In order for Taiwanese readers to understand the UK's equivalent training system, its structure must be understood, even though the focus of the study is on Taiwan.

1.8 Contribution to Knowledge

The researcher's background and her inside knowledge of beauty education and the beauty industry, both in Taiwan and the UK, contributes knowledge from a different perspective. She was thus able to identify fundamental causes and articulate clear theoretical models through a comparative lens study of the UK.

The outcomes of this research could also serve as a reference point for the Taiwanese government, the education sector and the beauty industry, as it concerns the professional development structure. The outcomes include three related models: a service model, a work placement model and a developmental model (see Figure 1-2).

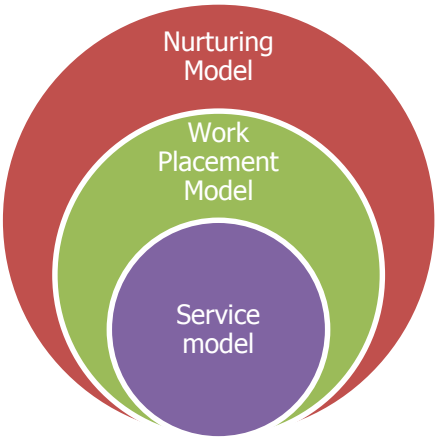


Figure 1-2: The relationship between three models

The service model considers the standard framework for treatment services, which implies the importance of introducing a nationally agreed standard. The work placement model highlights the significance of collaboration based on mutual targets in teaching, learning and assessment. The developmental model embraces all the elements of a training structure and defines the functions of the relevant stakeholders in that structure. These models could inform a broader concept for use in other domains. Detail is given in Chapter seven.

Recommendations to the Taiwanese government and to the country's educational and industrial organisations as well as to individuals will raise awareness of the need to establish an impartial professional body not only to assist the government to enact beauty-related legislation and regulations, but also to provide a platform for all relevant stakeholders to communicate and interact.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

Chapter One outlines the entire research project.

Chapter Two begins with an overview of the beauty industry and the occupation of beauty practitioner. Next is to discuss the relationship between beauty, beauty practice and beauty professionals, raising a number of issues about the nature of the beauty practitioner/professional role. Meanwhile,

professional bodies and associations were broadly analysed. Additionally, the structure of vocational education and training in both Taiwan and the UK was outlined. This section is divided into two parts that give a brief overview of the qualification framework, in FE and HE for beauty professionals in both countries respectively.

In Chapter Three, the relevant theories will be utilized to underline the concepts behind the arguments. The theories related to nurturing talents include competence, standards, skills formation and levels of competence standards and descriptors.

In Chapter Four the research framework is first presented to give an overview of the research process. The dissimilarities between the Taiwanese and UK methods resulting from cultural and structural differences are specified. The quality of the research methodology is examined.

Chapter Five focuses on analysing the data collected from Taiwan and the UK. Differences in structure between the two demanded that data presentation be in accordance with their respective natures. The findings are then summarised.

Chapter Six discusses the primary and secondary research findings. The findings are comprehensively examined in order to highlight the fundamental flaws in the Taiwanese training structure for beauty professionals. The analysis of competences required for beauty professionals in Taiwan, given in Chapter 5, is discussed. The elements of the UK's training approach are defined and the relevance of applying key features from the UK to Taiwan considered.

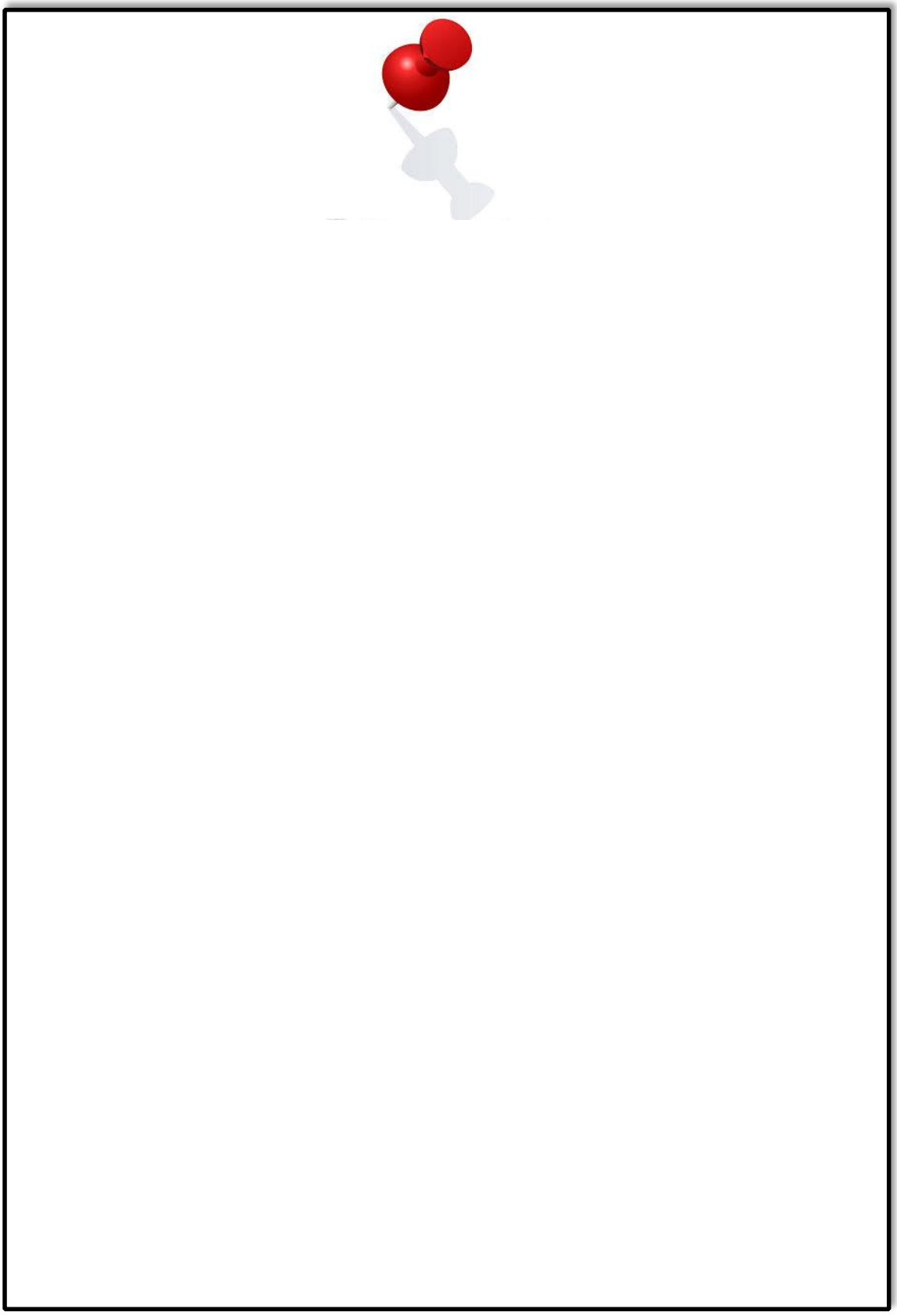
Chapter Seven presents the proposed models. These comprise the Service, Work Placement and Nurturing models, all three having been integrated into one holistic model based on the findings.

Chapter Eight summarises the study, correlating its aims and objectives with the research findings. A strategy for the Taiwanese beauty training structure is

proposed and specific recommendations regarding all relevant stakeholders. The contributions of the study and its implications are highlighted.

1.10 Summary of Chapter 1

This chapter has provided the research background and presented the research's aims, objectives and questions. The research methodology was briefly introduced in order to explain the methods used to meet the objectives and answer the research questions. The researcher's background in the field and her motivation for undertaking the study has been explained. The thesis contributions include analysis of the training structure of beauty professionals in Taiwan and the UK, and based on that, the development of three theoretical models and recommendations to the relevant stakeholders in Taiwan. The chapter closes by outlining the thesis, including the contents of each of the remaining chapters so that the reader can orient themselves in the work.



Chapter 2: Relevant Studies

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will give an overview of the Taiwanese beauty sector using a comparative lens analysis with the UK. It begins with an overview of the beauty industry, presenting sectoral information, analysing the beauty industry's structure, size and scope, including its workforce in both the UK and Taiwan. The next section briefly describes the nature of the beauty profession by outlining the interrelationships between beauty, beauty practice and beauty professionals. The broad differences and similarities between beauty education in Taiwan and the UK will be identified and the collaboration between education and industry will be outlined. The final section will review the existing literature on beauty professionals' competences.

2.2 The beauty industry

The beauty industry is a collective term for the industries of hair and beauty. HABIA (2008b) and Butfield (2009) divide the beauty industry into the six sub-industries of hairdressing, barbering, African-style hairdressing, beauty therapy, spa therapy and nail services. However, beauty therapy, make-up artistry, nail technology, holistic therapy and complementary therapy are conventionally included in the Beauty sector. The beauty sector overlaps with alternative medicine and the cosmetics industry. The huge range of businesses in the beauty industry makes beauty therapy the main focus of this study, although other sectors will also be examined insofar as their content is common to both.

2.2.1 Industry analysis

Definition of the beauty industry

Porter (1980:5) defines an industry as "the group of firms producing products that are close substitutes for each other." In the beauty industry there is a wide range of firm types, from cosmetic companies, cooperatives and salon chains to

individual establishments, as well as freelance practitioners operating independently. The difference between Porter's definition and the characteristics of the beauty industry is that the latter are dominated by small and micro-businesses (HABIA 2008a; SSA 2010; World of Work 2015).

According to the ninth revision of the Industry Standard Classification published by Taiwan's Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan, (Anon 2011), people working in skin care, make-up, nail care and other beauty-related services are not classed as being involved in any medical practice such as body treatment and body sculpture. Their employment area is classed as 'other services', and those in areas such as massage, styling design, piercing and eyebrow tattooing services as 'other personal services'. This is quite confusing: massage is not clearly differentiated because skin care and body treatment are types of massage indicating facial and body massage. Make-up services are also commonly offered as part of styling design. Eyebrow tattooing is only part of permanent make-up: other forms of tattoo such as eyeliner and lip are not taken into consideration.

The UK Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) 2007 hierarchy classifies beauty treatment under the category of other personal service activities (96.02), a category that includes "facial massage, manicure and pedicure, make-up, etc." (Office For National Statistics n.d.). This information is much scantier than Taiwan's equivalent. It is evident, however, that both countries class beauty practice as a personal service, and also that both countries' classifications understate the industry's scope.

Such classification is in fact rife with confusion. Although 'hair' and 'beauty' are normally seen as closely related, they are still quite distinct, with skillsets peculiar to each. Some existing studies such as those by Lawson (1999) would group hair, beauty and cosmetics together into a 'beauty industry' category. Brand and Ahmed (1986) classify hair and nail salons as beauty salon services.

This trend therefore increases the variety encompassed by the beauty industry, and especially the data on business valuations.

In the real world, the beauty business consists of three areas: cosmetics, toiletry and fragrances. Three categories embrace the five segments of skincare, haircare, make-up (colour), fragrances and personal hygiene (Kumar 2005:1264; Łopaciuk & Łoboda 2013:1080). Each segment also includes various product lines and services. It can be seen that the beauty industry offers a wide range of products and services targeting different genders, ages, ethnic groups, conditions and preferences. The purpose of segmenting a market is to meet various groups' demands (Ries & Trout 1972). The beauty industry is probably one of very few whose market size approaches that of the population as a whole, because 'beauty' has always been a concern of daily life even in prehistory (Jones 2010).

The beauty industry provides a wide range of products and services, from basic to complex. Beauty practitioners and professionals are thus required to exercise various levels of skills and knowledge in order to meet treatment specifications and client expectations. The demand to absorb new information and update techniques is therefore constant.

Trend Analysis

The beauty industry is a fast changing one that is increasingly being regarded as an affordable lifestyle choice rather than a luxury. The increasing variety of affordable choices has made the beauty industry's potential obvious to medical and healthcare professionals, who have consequently begun to test that market. Preventive medicine is one of the businesses inconspicuously entering the aesthetic clinic and spa fields. The concept of preventive medicine involves merging health and beauty into a field that includes beauty, health care, lifestyle and preventive medicine.

The beauty industry has maintained both competitive and cooperative relationships with other domains. The collaboration between medicine, biology, healthcare and beauty has generated a highly lucrative and vibrant market in Taiwan (Zou 2001). On other hand, these areas also compete with each other (RAPS 2015). In recent years the Taiwanese government has valued the collaboration between the tourism, fitness, spa and medical aesthetic industries highly, promoting 'beauty trips' (CEPD 2005). Consequently, as Tan (2007:1) highlights, the boundary between conventional beauty practice and aesthetic medicine is becoming increasingly blurred.

Market size

The basis of the beauty industry's global revenue has briefly been explained in the background to the study (see Section 1.3). The variety of product ranges and treatments, and the difficulty of accurately quantifying these, render researching the beauty industry's market potentially very complicated. Taiwan's cosmetic market value reached nearly NT$100 billion (£2 billion) in 2010 (Li 2011). According to the Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan in Taiwan (2002), there are 34,000 hair and beauty salons employed 60,000 workforces. It is important to note that there is a lack of market research related to the Taiwanese beauty industry: thus, the data would be cited from Taiwanese literature is limited to research related to beauty professionals (see Section 2.2.3.2).

Black (2004), cited from Guild News in 1999, estimated the value of the professional beauty industry in the UK as £366 million in 1998. Mintel[2] (2007), by comparison, gave the UK health and beauty treatments market share as £1,220 million in 2001 and £1,524 million in 2006. The industry's annual

[2] Mintel is probably one of the few market reports producing data on health and beauty treatments.

turnover in 2011/2012 was given as £6.2 billion[3] (HABIA 2016c), while (Aidin 2014) estimated the UK's market size at £7.1 billion in 2013. However according to HABIA the beauty therapy industry has a yearly turnover of around £500 million (World of Work 2015).

Once more the figures vary, so the data related to beauty business might contain some sub-industries. The majority of market reports and national or global data mainly review product sales figures: in other words, the substantial number of treatment services generated from beauty salons, home-based settings or mobile businesses could be being overlooked. The existing data may not really define the industry. However, the figures do indicate that the beauty industry has a great potential that cannot be disregarded.

Regulatory and Legal Requirements

The UK government works closely with the beauty industry regulatory body to tailor legislation and regulations to the beauty sector. In the UK, Local Authorities (LAs) and the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) have divided the responsibilities between them, but work closely together (HSE 2012). Beauty salons are legally obligated to comply with all local and national legal requirements, in areas including not only health and safety and hygiene but also as regards employee welfare and customers' rights. The regulation covers a wide range of practices. LAs are normally in charge of non-invasive practices, while any invasive treatment will be monitored by the HSE. Professional bodies have also established codes of practice. Even so, Hepworth and Murtagh's (2005) study still highlights the needs for Continuing Professional Development (CPD) as regards health and safety.

[3] This figure includes hair (Afro-Caribbean hair and barbering), nail care, beauty therapy (including mobile) and spas.

More importantly, the relevant legislation and regulations are embedded in the qualifications as mandatory units at each level of learning, regardless of whether it is as written assignments, self-study or implementation in teaching and learning. Graduates are thus fully aware of their responsibilities, as practitioners and employees, towards their clients and employers. Even so, home-based and mobile freelancers are particularly difficult to monitor. Although they are subject to taxation in the UK, and are encouraged to insure themselves, registration as a prerequisite for practice is not required. Therefore, this group is easily overlooked.

The Taiwanese government, on the other hand, has always approached regulation passively (Chang 2005). The lack of tailored legislation, regulations and codes of practice to guide practitioners is a serious matter that cannot be ignored.

Competitive analysis

Porter's Five Forces model (1980) is probably one of the most useful tools with which to analyse industrial structures and competitiveness, and will be used here to obtain an understanding of beauty's industrial structure. The beauty industry essentially fits Porter's framework of five competitive forces because of the nature of its business structure. Porter points out that competitiveness is the core of industrial success. His five driving forces of industry competition (see Figure 2-1) are: entry, suppliers' and buyers' bargaining power, substitution and rivalry. The factors driving competitive forces and affecting competitiveness will be discussed according to the following aspects.

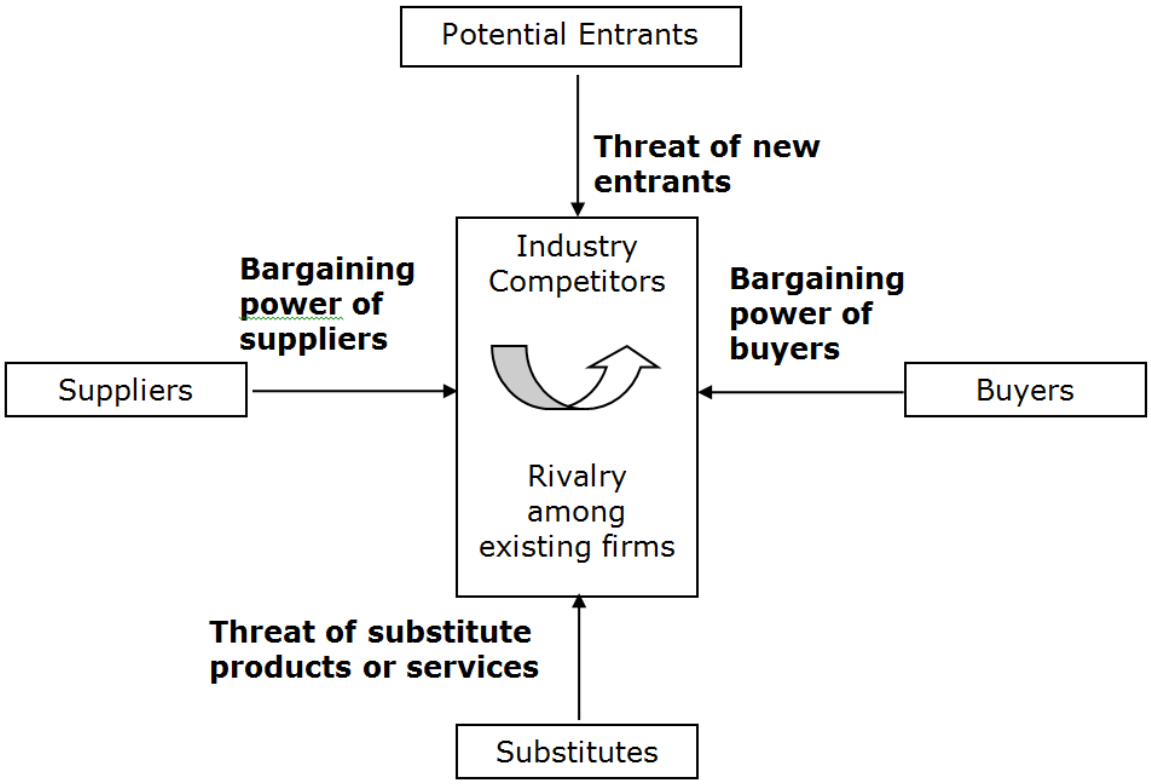


Figure 2-1: Forces Driving Industry Competition (Porter 1980:4)

Firstly, the beauty industry's boundaries are ambiguous, so the low barriers to entry and setup costs that attract potential competitors make it difficult to regulate practitioners. They also jeopardise the quality of service and increase the intensity of price competition.

Not only amateurs and professionals, but also salon chains and cosmetic companies compete with each other. Competitors in the beauty industry are not only the self-employed, individual beauty salons and salon chains, but also hundreds of cosmetic companies such as Dior, CHANEL, Shiseido, KOSÉ, YSL and so forth, which have franchised a wide range of cosmetic products in department stores and retail shops. Many cosmetic manufacturers also produce their own products and brands. Competitors include bio-technology companies, and even dermatologists in aesthetics clinics. It must, however, be clarified that the cosmetics industry operates on a different economic scale to beauty salon chains, although their industrial structure overlaps.

Secondly, suppliers' and buyers' bargaining power will impact differently on each type of beauty business. For the cosmetic company, they have a strong buying power to reduce the cost. Since small and individual businesses form the bulk of the industry, that their buying power would be insignificant as the small quantities they order would have less influence on costs, so the suppliers' power is dominant. In other words, costs of supplies will be high, thereby squeezing profit margins.

Beauty care is seen as a fragmented industry (RAPS 2011; Porter 1980:198) that nevertheless has great growth potential (Łopaciuk & Łoboda 2013:1086). Based on Porter (1980) broader points about low barriers to entry, the beauty industry's entry barrier are moderately too low, as both the economic scale and the risk are relatively small apart from cosmetic companies. The personal services offered by practitioners, and the personal relationships they build with customers, make beauty salons normally relatively small in size and lead to diseconomies of scale.

Cosmetics' product cycles are short, as they change according to trends. In Taiwan, such variety not only allows the price point to be maintained but customers to be retained. For example, Taiwanese consumers' behaviour is very different from their UK counterparts. Beauty products and services have very short product cycles, especially in Taiwan. Pye (2000:250) implies that Eastern markets prefer novelty, so firms there strive to create new products to satisfy customers. In the West, by contrast, the market is relatively stable as firms tend to concentrate on enhancement and product recognition. In Taiwan, changes in name, packaging and content often create the illusion of new products, treatments and services so as to attract customers: while in the UK, the content of treatments remains stable to make recognition easier.

For this reason, cosmetics can be substituted for each other, which leads easily to price competition. This is probably common among cosmetic companies. Some, such as Shiseido, supply cosmetics to retail shops at a certain cost, but

the rivalry among competitors forces the retail shops to squeeze their profit margins to outsell others selling the same and other brands. That is why some retail shops offer free treatment services to attract customers into purchasing their products. This shows that customizing treatment services to differentiate a firm from its competitors is probably a better strategy by which to gain competitive advantage. The treatment services could be less at risk of substitution because their value lies in the skill, empathy and experience with which they are delivered and their transformational outcomes.

2.2.2 Industry Occupational Overview

The beauty industry's workforce

In the UK, 7,440 beauty therapy salons employed 34,300 people, who served 92 million clients in 2006 (HABIA 2006). Aidin (2014) estimated that more than a million beauty practitioners are in employment, while HABIA's figure is about 35,000 across at least 8,000 businesses (World of Work 2015). HABIA's latest estimate (2016a), which includes the hair and beauty sector, is over 245,795 staff in 55,000 businesses comprising hair, beauty and nail salons, barbers and spas.

Chen et al. (2006:3) cite the statistical data from Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan, in Taiwan, according to which 23,616 hair and beauty salons employed 46,015 staff in 2001. By 2006, the number of hair and beauty salons had reached 29,947, employing 56,281 practitioners (Yeh 2010). According to Her (2013), there are currently some 1,200 beauty clinics and centres in Taiwan, while among the nation's 40,000 doctors, 6,000 to 8,000 are engaged in aesthetic practices. The statistics for the Taiwanese beauty industry are quite fragmentary because of the lack of reliable organisations to conduct full surveys in the beauty sector.

This reveals the variety of figures available. The possible explanation is that the industry is very complex, and 'hidden enterprises' make it difficult to acquire

accurate data. This issue could, however, be solved by compulsory registration for practice. The beauty industry is mainly composed of small or micro-businesses. 70 per cent are single salons, and the rate of self-employment is high (HABIA 2007b). HABIA's figures on the size of the workforce in the UK is shown in Figure 2-2 (HABIA 2016c).

Size of workplaces	
1-10 employees	93.5%
11-49 employees	6.4%
50-199 employees	0.1%
200 or more	0.0%

Figure 2-2: Size of the workforce in the UK beauty industry

Figure 2-3 gives employment status in the beauty sector, as defined by HABIA. Some individuals will have been included in more than one category (e.g. an employee would also be counted under the part time or full time category). Self-employment runs at 42.2 per cent, which could be full-time or part-time, setting up as a home-based or mobile freelancer (HABIA 2016c). However, more practitioners as self-employed may not be included in these figures.

Employment Status	
Employees	57.8%
Self-employed	42.2%
Full time employed:	30.8%
Part-time:	27%
Managers	9.3%
Hairdressers and barbers	62.6%
Beauty therapists and related occupations	62.6%

Figure 2-3: Employment status in the UK beauty industry (HABIA 2016c)

The beauty industry is female-dominated (Chen et al. 2006; HABIA 2007b; Huang 2007; Jones 2010; RAPS 2015), but although the workforce is more than 90 per cent female, there is the potential to attract males to work in the

industry. In UK, the age profile, according to HABIA (2008b) and (2016b), shows that more than half of employees are under 34, while the biggest age group is the under 24s. Whereas, in Taiwan, nearly 44% of cosmetic staff are 16-20 years old (Huang 2007). However, Huang's data seems unclear as the detail of the data was not specified. Therefore, it is difficult to come to a conclusion on differences in demographic profile or why that may occur.

Age			
16 – 24	76,505	31.1	13.4
25 – 34	56,787	23.1	21.1
35 – 44	73,164	29.8	26.0
45 – 59	38,962	15.9	31.9
60 and over	6,147	2.5	7.6
Total	245,795	100.0	100.0

Figure 2-4: Age profile of the beauty industry (HABIA 2016c)

Level 3 was advised to be a new standard for all sectors of the UK (Fuller & Unwin 2003). By 2016, it has become the most common qualification of beauty practitioners in the UK (see Figure 2-5). Level 3 covers BTEC National, NVQs and VRQs. These qualifications are an equivalent, at the same level, to A Levels (total at this level is therefore 42.8%). After more than a decade, only 11.4 per cent of beauty industry workers have HE qualifications (see Figure 2-5: Level 4 and above and degree). Thus, the majority of practitioners are qualified to Level 2 and 3 standards.

Current skills and qualification profile	
Degree:	2.9%
Level 4 and above:	8.5%
A-Level (or vocational equivalent):	5%
Level 3:	37.8%
Level 2:	35.3%
Below Level 2 or none:	18.3%

Figure 2-5: Qualification profile (HABIA 2016c)

In Taiwan, there is lack of detailed information regarding the workforce for beauty industry. In Taiwan's statistics hairdressers, beauticians and make-up stylists are normally categorised all in one: thus, the number would be less accurate. The manpower required for FE beauty graduates is 94.82%; whereas, for Higher Vocational Education and Training (HVET) beauty graduates, it is only 5.18% according to a Job Back 1111 in Taiwan in 2013 (Industry-Academy Cooperation Information n.d.). This could be explained that beauty industry does not require a degree (Chan & Lin 2008). However, the majority of FE beauty graduates choose to upgrade their degree, than enter job market (Fu & Liu 2012). The average of vacancy is approximately 24.9% (Directorate-General of Budget 2011). The average minimum wage between hairdressers, beauticians and stylist is around NT$20,763 (equivalent £450) a month (Directorate-General of Budget 2011).

Industrial training

Industrial training is carried out both on and off the job. The beauty industry faces difficulties in recruiting therapists, with vacancies in the UK having reached 35 per cent (HABIA 2007b). The UK has the highest rate of training sponsored by employers, but the training duration is shorter and less intensive compared to other European countries (Page & Hillage 2006). The reason is cost (Page & Hillage 2006). HABIA (2007) also points out that the major issue facing the industry is that the employer cannot afford the cost of training, especially training that takes the staff out of the salon, even though most employers agree that training is important.

The quality of industrial training could be another issue. Although job-specific training has a positive impact on service performance (Mackelprang et al. 2012), the quality must be monitored if it is not to degenerate into merely updating product and operational knowledge and relevant operational skills for very specific purposes while neglecting the basic purpose of personnel

development. Industrial training could be sponsored fully or partially by employers.

Those practitioners and professionals who have to rely on themselves to keep their professional practices up to date, especially self-employed practitioners, must be aware of their skill needs and be able to fund their own training. Being adaptable and able to deal with unpredictable situations thus becomes the most important quality for employment, whether by oneself or another.

E-training should thus form a future learning model that allows "the interactions between organisational priorities, learners' needs, instructors' roles and the learning environment to inform the discussion and conceptualisation of effective e-learning" (Newton & Ellis 2006), as outlined by Rifkin (2014) in his projections for the future (see Section 1.3). According to HABIA's 2006 report, less than half of beauty salons use computers (HABIA 2006). However, ICT will need to be promoted and integrated into Vocational Education and Training (VET) and industry for future needs.

Current and Emerging Skill Gaps and Shortages

Skills gaps and shortages are to some extent used interchangeably. The difference is that the former can be filled by internal stuff training, while skills shortages must be supplied by external recruitment (Wallis 2002; HABIA 2007b). The number of vacancies and the rates at which they are filled could be the prime indicator of skills shortages (Infometrics Ltd 2006). Skill gaps could be identified from employee performance: however, they can also easily be overlooked (Wallis 2002).

Recruitment and skill shortages	
Salons with vacancies (overall):	20.5%
Hard to fill vacancies:	12.1%
Vacancies due to poor quality applicants:	2.9%
Establishments with skills gaps:	12.4%

Figure 2-6: Recruitment and skill shortages

Page and Hillage (2006) state that skills gaps are actually more relevant to personal characteristics or traits, also known as 'soft skills' or '21st century skills' (Tobin n.d.) such as communication, customer service and team working. In HABIA's sectoral analysis of the beauty industry, selling skills is the main gap in the beauty sector (HABIA 2006). HABIA (2008a) also exposes trainers' incompetence in developing those soft skills, resulting in poor service to customers and the incapability of meeting their expectations.

In HABIA's 2007 skill survey, the latest survey of the UK's beauty therapy industry, retail sales (64 per cent), marketing (62 per cent) and business planning (59 per cent) are the main skills gaps. The common gaps are in technical, practical and job-related (56 per cent), customer handling (48 per cent), oral communication (38 per cent) and team working skills (36 per cent). These skills, and those involving business and management, will be the ones chiefly required in the future, as their quality could improve competitive advantage in the service industry (HABIA 2007c). However, there is no research regarding skill gaps and shortages identified found yet in Taiwan.

Emerging Occupations

The rapid development of information technology and transmission has modified consumer behaviour towards a pursuit of novelty and a demand for change. As mentioned in Section 1.3, technological development shapes our lives and drives changes in the economy and society.

However, RAPS (2015) sees the beauty industry as moving away from goods and towards a service economy. While cosmetic products are not customised, services could be, and could be delivered using a personalised approach (Pine II and Gilmore 1999:90). A customised or even personalised client experience could add value to the product. How to create that experience is the next challenge for beauty professionals.

A 'soft' economy by 2020 is Taiwan's goal (Chen 2011). One of the elements of a soft economy is to accentuate 'creativity and service' by emphasising aesthetics and culture in education. Along with an increasingly ageing population, a package incorporating health, cosmetic surgery and beauty is promoted internationally according to Institute for Information Industry 2011 (Chen 2011).

Transforming body and mind is a new, 21st century beauty-related concept according to Pine II and Gilmore (1999). This transformation is built on distinctive experiences that could be sourced from learning, development, growth, improvement, recovery and reform. Wider commercial emphasis on the integration of body, mind and spirit can maximise the value of beauty because it evolves from physical to psychological to spiritual.

2.2.3 The correlation between beauty, beauty practice and beauty professionals

Beauty, beauty practice and beauty practitioner/professionals are the three important elements of the beauty profession (see Figure 2-7). The correlation of these elements could be interpreted as the delivery by beauty practitioner professionals of the idea of beauty through beauty practices. Although the literature contains substantial debate on the concept of beauty and the marketing of the beauty industry, beauty practice and their practitioner professionals seem to be ignored.

Beauty, its practice and its practitioners are inseparable. A beauty practitioner plays the role of a messenger communicating not only messages from cosmetics companies but the very idea of beauty itself, through their presentation of the beauty professional's image and their performance of beauty practice.

Figure 2-7: The relationship between beauty, beauty practice and beauty professional

2.2.3.1 Beauty

Sarup (1992:68) states that "Need is satisfiable, desire is insatiable". The endless desire for beauty boosts the industry's investment, as demonstrated by its healthy revenues and its national economic outputs. Business opportunities are created by the infinite demand for beauty treatments and products, so creating the desire for beauty and meeting that demand has become the main marketing strategy of beauty-related industries. This relies on the idea of beauty, the insatiable desire for beauty and consumers' willingness to pay for it.

Whether beauty is merely skin-deep has long been the subject of debate: it is seen as a means of attracting the opposite sex (Drury 2000; Fatovi et al. 2004; Björkell 2007; Wood n.d.). The history of beauty is normally discussed in terms of costume, hairstyling and wig fitting, make-up, accessories and adornments, each of which involves aesthetic elements and represents the individual's economic status, social class and political position (Corson 1972).

Several studies present arguments regarding the perception of beauty in society and its advantages in the workplace (Domzal and Kernan 1993; The Economist 2003; Baron 2005). The perception of beauty is subjective, but it cannot be denied that such subjectivity somehow has universal significance (Winston 2006:288). According to Kanazawa and Kovar (2004), beautiful people are associated with greater health, intelligence and higher social status. This argument is quite controversial, as the beauty of the study's subjects was inherited rather than artificial.

Some studies explore the impact of beauty on individuals. For example, Mulhern et al.'s (2003) study reaches the empirical conclusion that full make-up does indeed improve appearance and enhance attractiveness. Apart from its superficial impact, artificial beauty also increases confidence and affects behaviour. Black (2004) maintains that the slogan 'look good, feel better' is aimed at boosting individual's confidence. However, most believe that being beautiful or looking good could provide an advantage, as indicated by the continuing strength of the cosmetics industry.

Beauty has become a choice that should be respected for whatever the choice is. A teenage girl, Maisie Beech, claims that "I wanted to show that I like make-up and I wear it for myself, but I'll also happily get on the train brow-less if I want to." (Dorking 2016; Hodgkin 2016) This attitude has not always prevailed. A Chinese saying by Yu-Rang of the Warring States Period that "a girl will doll herself up for the man who loves her" (Anon 2016) has the emotional connotations of pleasure (Zhang 2009). It could be that pleasing her lover was the way to gain personal pleasure at that time. On the one hand, male perceptions of female beauty have profoundly influenced the idea of beauty in Chinese history. However, in Confucianism, beauty is directly linked to moral, emotional and aesthetic values (Zhang 2009; Huo 2011). However, there is no lack in Chinese history of the use of 'beauty' for political purposes.

Beauty can have the simplest or the most complex connotations. It is difficult to define and measure what beauty is: Lownik (2006) notes that definitions vary between generations, countries, ethnic groups and cultures. But Fatovi et al. (2004) considers beauty as a harmony of inseparable inner and external qualities. The claim that beauty is only skin-deep concerns its superficial form only, ignoring its impact. Paulson (2008) argues that beauty has both physical and psychological benefits, the latter evidently more than just skin-deep. A moment's reflection by anyone who has ever tried to understand the way that people pursue beauty as though it were a universal value bears this out. Clients approach beauty professionals to seek advice on improving their appearance and on well-being, because they trust those professionals to understand and empathise with their need for improvement, and they believe that such improvement is always possible.

It is argued that the idea of beauty is influenced by the media (Oumeish 2001; Lownik 2006). The media undoubtedly has some impact, but cultural influences cannot be ignored. In Asian cultures such as India, Hong Kong, Japan and Korea, for example, whiteness is seen as a symbol of feminine beauty (Li and Belk 2008). This is also true of Thailand, the Philippines and Malaysia (Bird et al. 2010). In Taiwan this attitude has even withstood the Western media's promotion of tanning. This idea of pale skin as beautiful is deeply rooted in Chinese history, because women were not supposed to indulge in outdoor activities. In Chinese history, make-up was applied to illustrate their status and sexual attractiveness by lightening their complexions, shaping and pencilling their eyebrows, colouring their lips and wearing nail polish and perfumes (Björkell 2007). It cannot be denied that the concept of beauty in Taiwan has been deeply influenced by Chinese ideology and by the power of Western media. However, a white complexion was fashionable in the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries in the West, whereas dark skin colour betrayed a working lifestyle (Corson 1972). From the late 20th century, and even today, tanned skin has

become fashionable, supposedly demonstrating a relaxed, luxurious lifestyle (Fatovi et al. 2004).

The subject of beauty should be at the heart of both the beauty industry and beauty education. Beauty has connotations of Aesthetics; without which it would be lacking in depth. Hekkert (2006:2) defines aesthetics as "sensory perception and understanding or sensuous knowledge." Han (2003) points out that the Taiwanese generally lack aesthetic education and considered it just as important as intellectual education, and should apply to all ages. Hong and Huang (2003), and Hsu (2003) in particular, highlight the importance of aesthetic education to beauty education and the beauty industry, a factor that has long been ignored. This does not mean that aesthetics has not been integrated into education: rather, such education was considered to belong to the sphere of art. Hsu also emphasises that art teachers have not been aware of the importance of aesthetic education and the difference between it and art education.

However, it is not this study's purpose to decide the question of whether or not beauty is skin-deep. Sircello (1975:1) notes that "[b]eauty is all around us in things both natural and artificial." Beauty practitioners and professionals must learn this. In other words, this study intends to highlight how practitioners justify their idea of beauty to their customers, including their ability to communicate beauty-related concepts to customers through beauty practices.

2.2.3.1 Beauty practice

Historical evidence indicates that some methods of beauty treatment can be traced back to the days of the Egyptians, Greeks and Romans (Hernandez 2011). Beauty products did not become a substantial industry until the mid-nineteenth century (Peiss 2000; Black 2004; Jones 2010). In other words, beauty services began in domestic settings (Peiss 2000:491). Before the manufacture of cosmetics, the trade's scope was very restricted and the

formulae for manufacturing cosmetics were mostly home-made recipes passed down through the generations (Corson 1972; Jones 2010). The safety risks posed by these ingredients and practices did not discourage people from using them to attain the desired levels of beauty (Corson 1972).

Beauty practices were developed to assist with women's beauty regimes (Hernandez 2011). They were also considered as an important element of femininity (Lazar 2011). Some feminists identified with the 'third wave' have claimed that beauty practices are enjoyable, autonomously chosen and skilled feminine pursuits, while others associated with the 'second wave' have argued that the ideal of beauty, judged as having been created and promoted by the beauty industry, has misled women (Lazar 2011:37). Beauty practice is a method of meeting clients' expectations of beauty. Even if the purpose of the treatment purchased is not met, customers might be led to believe that it would be worse if the treatment had not been taken. It is thus arguable that beauty practice has become a means of hope.

Beauty practice is clearly a dialogue between beauty and beauty professionals. If these practices are tools by which beauty is manifested, the key is to determine how such practices interpret the basic concept. It is very important for beauty practices to reach an understanding of beauty. Although the classical aesthetic criteria may not conform to modern perceptions of beauty, any study of the evolution of aesthetic standards must be grounded in an awareness of contemporary genetic, cultural and environmental factors. In addition to function and aesthetics, present-day customers perceive beauty treatment services as part of their lifestyles (Wagner 2004), with the purpose of improving their sense of well-being (Felski 2006; Paulson 2008; Smith et al. 2009; RAPS 2015). In other words, customers no longer walk into beauty salons only to be made to look good, but also to feel good. Wood (Wood n.d.) argues that the idea of beauty has evolved from a focus on physical beauty to the enhancement

of intangible personal qualities. Even so, the prejudice against a concern with beauty as being subjective and vain has proved resistant to change.

Today the practice of beauty is still regarded as a low-skilled one, an attitude that degrades the career status of beauty practitioner professionals. Regrettably, beauty education seems to be constructed on this lowest level of beauty practice, meaning that the field only attracts that level of practitioner. This is why, according to RAPS (2015), the industry's economics consist only of a shift from goods to services. Its development seems to lag far behind Pine II and Gilmore's (1999) forecast.

The types of beauty practice setting include beauty counters in retail shops or department stores, services in beauty salons, beauty clinics or home-based or mobile-trade freelance therapists. A wide range of beauty services listed by HABIA (Berry-Lound et al. 2001) are shown in Appendix A. From this, it can be seen that specialisation in every form of treatment poses a challenge, especially as clients may require more than one treatment at a time. The ability to adapt to requirements and plan procedures to maximise effects is thus important, and the need to take health and safety precautions into consideration even more so.

According to HABIA (Berry-Lound et al. 2000; HABIA 2007b), the most popular treatments offered by the majority of salons in the UK are those Level 2 to 3 skills such as manicure, pedicure and waxing, as well as facial and body massage, while more advanced treatments such as laser hair removal, aromatherapy, reflexology, cosmetic tattooing and semi-permanent make-up are seldom offered. This may be because of a skills shortage in these areas in the UK. In order to fill this gap in the industry, training has been introduced into the HE curriculum (HABIA 2007b). Although beauty professionals are trained in a wide range of treatment services, they prefer to specialise in certain areas (Black 2004). It is important to note that beauty professionals do not have to specialise in all treatment services.

2.2.3.2 Beauty practitioner/professionals

The correlation between beauty and beauty professionals is that beauty is the idea sold by beauty professionals: practice is the tool they use to this end. Outcomes range from tangibles such as actual products to intangibles including services, experiences or even the fulfilment of desires, the satisfaction of hopes or the gratification of pleasures. Atalay (2007) acknowledges a connection between pleasure and beauty. However, the majority of researchers seem more interested in discussing the customer motivations and behaviour behind the business data, rather than considering one of the industry's key driving forces – namely, beauty practitioner professionals who not only represent the industry but are also in the front line, selling and promoting the idea of beauty and delivering the services and treatments.

Beauty professionals' job titles and role specifications vary according to the work involved. The beauty professional is generally known as a 'beauty therapist', 'beautician/cosmetologist/cosmetician', 'make-up artist' or 'hairdresser'. Their role is to help transform appearances and minds. Lawson (1999) calls them all 'cosmetologists' (p240) even though their roles are quite varied. A recent issue of *Make-Up Artist* has coined a new term, 'beauty artist', to describe the career of a make-up artist (Brooks 2014).

Recent years have witnessed an interest in the role of beauty practitioners and the phenomena taking place in beauty salons as social environments. Beauty therapists have been defined as involved in 'emotional labour' and 'aesthetic labour' by social analysts, while practitioners are termed 'body workers' (Black and Sharma 2001; Gimlin 2002; Black 2004; Toerien and Kitzinger 2007a; Toerien and Kitzinger 2007b).

In sociological analysis, Black (2004) extensively discusses the relationship between beauty professionals and their customers. Her definition of emotional labour incorporates both customers and therapists. Her argument is that the professional's relationship with the client's emotions is as important as the

professional's own. Toerien and Kitzinger (2007a) focus both on the feminist concern with making the skills of emotional labour visible, and the analysis of how participants manage multiple involvements in a socially meaningful way. Once these authors such as Black and Toerien and Kitzinger recognise beauty treatment as emotional work, they acknowledge the profession's complex nature.

The term 'emotional labour' has also been used to characterise job roles such as flight attendants (Williams 2003), social workers (Roh and Moon 2011) and service workers (Payne 2009). These roles are similar in that they involve front-line service, and hence effective emotional management (Hochschild 1983:7; Payne 2009:363).

A few studies have also pointed out that beauty salons occupy a vital social position closely linked to culture, beauty and health (Solomon et al. 2004; Black 2004). The level of intimacy and interaction reflects the trust within the profession. The *BEAUTY and Health* project in America was developed within the beauty salon environment to deliver its health message through trained and licensed cosmetologists (Linnan et al. 2001; Solomon et al. 2004). The key feature was again the dialogue between cosmetologist and customer. The beauty professional's role, however, is such that any suspicious skin conditions can be identified prior to treatment.

The beauty therapists who participated in Black's study claimed that their work also overlapped with that of health workers in their engagement with physical, psychological and social factors. Lee (2008) explores that the role and emotions of Taiwanese beauticians is fundamentally similar to that of psychological consultants. Sharma and Black (2001) and Tan (2007) also maintain that some of the UK's NHS hospitals even incorporate beauty therapy in the management of certain groups of patients, even though such treatments are only intended to supplement medical services such as camouflage and skin care after cosmetic surgery.

Witz et al. (2003) link emotional and aesthetic labour to explain the correlation of beauty with the role of beauty professionals: "The labour of aesthetics now forms a vital part of the aesthetics of service organisation as it is experienced by customers" (p50). Warhurst and Nickson (2007) use the term 'aesthetic labour' to argue that appearance is an important element in any industry that needs their staff to engage directly with customers and uses their employees' appearance for competitive advantage. Examples are the retail, hospitality, air and beauty industries. The latter requires a certain standard of appearance, especially for beauticians who work at beauty and make-up counters, to demonstrate the effect of products, to transmit the brand message and to represent the company's corporate image by conforming to a dress code.

Aesthetics also embraces other concepts such as culture, philosophy and tradition. Hong and Huang (2003) and Hsu (2003) find that Japanese beauty education and service is grounded in the pursuit of aesthetics, and also that aesthetics is missing from Taiwanese beauty education.

'Body worker/labour' is also a term that involves working on appearance and emotional management (Gimlin 2007:353). Because such work involves intimacy and the administration of physical pleasure, it is easily associated with the sex trade, or is indeed mistaken for it. The boundaries must therefore be clearly drawn (Oerton 2004). News media occasionally report that some unscrupulous businesses have exploited beauty salons or spas as legitimate covers for illegal sex-related trades (Guo 2012; Taiwan Power News 2014). Alongside the low entry barriers to the industry, this is partly why the social status of beauty practitioners in Taiwan is low, a situation only exacerbated by the lack of an authorised professional body to monitor professional practice.

The complexity of beauty practices implies a wide diversity of roles for beauty professionals. The work varies according to employer requirements and customer demands regarding services and treatments. The table below,

developed from relevant beauty textbooks, summarises the job roles in beauty-related industries.

Job title	Work content
Receptionist (beauty salon)	Initial meeting and greeting of clients, booking appointments and dealing with queries and complaints.
Beautician/Cosmetologist/Beauty Consultant	Advising and demonstrating the application of cosmetics, perfume and skin care products. Selling products and providing general beauty services.
Beauty Therapist	There are a wide range of therapists, generally working in beauty salons, all providing different services and using different products. Beauty treatments include facial and eye treatments, manicure, pedicure, hair removal, body massage, spray tanning, general make-up (including day, evening, bridal and special occasion's make-up). Some salons may require their beauty therapists to perform some medically-related treatments such as Botox, chemical peels or micro-dermabrasion.
Senior Beauty Therapist	
Advanced Beauty Therapist	
Holistic/Complementary Therapist	Can administer aromatherapy, Indian head massage, shiatsu, reflexology, crystal therapy, colour therapy, thermal auricular therapy, reiki and hot stone massage among other treatments
Salon Manager	Running and managing the concern smoothly and efficiently. They must ensure that regulations are complied with, that staff members are matched to work of the appropriate skillset, that client satisfaction is maintained and treatments are of a consistently high standard.
Make-up Artist	These normally work on a freelance or part-time basis. They mainly carry out make-up for work such as fashion shows, photo shoots, TV/film/stage media, for brides, casualty effects, airbrush make-up, face and body art.
Make-up Specialist	Further development may include specialisation in such areas as special effects in TV/film/stage creative industry, involving casting, sculpturing, the manufacture of prosthetic pieces in various materials and applications and wig making. This profession involves not only art and design processes, but also engineering knowledge and techniques.

Job title	Work content
Stylist/Image Consultant	Responsible for advising on hairstyling, make-up and costume for events or special occasions in the fashion and beauty industry.
Nail Technician	Basic manicures and pedicures and specialises particularly in artificial nails (including acrylic or gel extensions) and nail art in decorations using coloured varnish, transfers, airbrushing, gems and glitter techniques.
Cosmetician/Cosmetic Scientist	Development of new cosmetic products such as make-up, skincare and perfumes. The levels range from operators on specific formulations to R&D on new formulations.
Clinic Cosmetician/Therapeutic Cosmetician	Working with cosmetic surgeons and nurses, mainly dealing with skin problems, skin care after surgical treatment and skin treatments in the clinic under a medical professional's supervision.
Camouflage Cosmetician/ Camouflage Therapist	Camouflage conceals severe skin defects such as burns, scars, acne or birthmarks by using specialised products.
Electrolysis	Mainly for electronic hair removal
Beauty Technician	Technical assistants normally based in the institution. The work includes management, preparation and maintenance of materials and equipment, maintenance of hygienic standards, risk assessments and health and safety.
Beauty Trainer/Assessor	Training and assessment, either at work or college.
Beauty Lecturer	Based at the institution. Mainly responsible for teaching: delivering the knowledge and skills relevant to beauty therapy.
Permanent Cosmetic/Make-up Tattooist	Specialises in semi-permanent or permanent make-up or camouflage tattooing.

Table 2-1: Job roles and work content (Nordmann 2011; Beckman & Quesne 2005; Lidell et al. 1984; Fallon 2011)

Table 2-1 shows that beauty therapy covers a wide range of treatment services. It is difficult to quantify the industry's exact revenue (see Section 2.2.1). Beauty therapists' work includes services ranging from retailing commodity products to transforming people's minds and bodies.

The complex nature of this work has apparently been ignored, as research has tended to focus on beauty itself rather than its practitioners. It is therefore unsurprising that Adams (2002) questions beauty practitioners' competence, as their training is in fact inadequate. He argues that practitioners' authority derives from their own confidence in their profession, and that the knowledge claims they make are often inadequately supported by their own information.

The early stages of beauty training emphasise skills coaching in informal apprenticeships, vocational education and on-the-job training (Cai 2003; Misko 2006). This focus on skills training means that the theoretical and practical knowledge underpinning those techniques are virtually ignored. The resultant lack of theoretical knowledge has limited the development of the profession. Along with rapid technological advances, VET faces continual changes in education, educational and industrial policy, economy and society (Watkins 1999; Smithers 2002). The interaction between vocational education and industrial needs in relation to the nurturing of talents now appears more important than ever.

Adams (2002) is strongly of the opinion that the reason for the beauty sector's close association with the medical profession is its desire to increase its legitimacy. In certain areas, beauty practitioners and medical professionals could complement each other. Some cosmetic procedures in the UK such as laser hair removal have advanced to the level of beauty therapy because of the skill shortages identified by HABIA in 2007. Taiwan, by contrast, still restricts any medically-related aesthetic treatments to the sphere of medical practice. This does not, however, prevent practitioners performing these treatments illegally. This highlights a grey area between the beauty industry and the medical profession, one in which business confidentiality severely circumscribes guidance and research (Tan 2007).

Hayt (2002) and Adams (2002) show that the quality and quantity of the training available to beauty professionals is not enough for certain treatments

that might involve medical or technological components. In addition, ambiguous regulations allow beauty practitioners to perform high-tech treatments, or medical professionals to be involved without supervision. These authors also question the authority of beauty professionals, the quality of their training, the foundation and trust relationship between practitioners and clients and the boundaries between beauty, science and medicine. However, this accusation against beauty professionals is not entirely fair, as unclear regulations and inaccessible training tempt practitioners to take risks and leave customers without choices.

2.2.4 Beauty professional bodies and associations

The definition of a professional body (BusinessDictionary.com 2015) or association (Collins 2015; ICA 1995) is a group of individuals engaged in a similar line of work formed into an organisation to conduct their members' practice through regulations and codes in order to meet the standards set by the organisation and represent their profession. Ward (1993:3) describes such bodies as groups of "independent and voluntary associations of professionals working in a particular occupation". A wide range of professions could be included, even "the slightly lower 'technician' occupations". COIS, Ministry of the Interior, Taiwan (2015) further stipulates that the body should place an "emphasis on the economic level, but not for commercial purpose[s]…, and the organisation should aim at protecting the interests of the members…".

There are many beauty associations in Taiwan. These are not regulatory bodies, nor are they overseen by the government. More importantly, there is very little if any information regarding Taiwanese beauty associations, guilds and unions. Their function, insofar as this can be gleaned from their official sites, is to promote training courses relevant to skills and other international certifications.

UKIPG (2000:1) states that:

> *"a profession must have a governing body which sets standards of education and professional achievement for entry, and which sets ethical standards and professional rules which are to be observed in perpetuity by its members."*

There is no government-appointed professional body to regulate these professional associations and to monitor the industry's practices in Taiwan.

The many beauty related organisations in the UK fall into three types: examining and validating bodies, professional bodies and industry bodies. An examining and awarding body administers examinations and validations (Jessup 1991). Some examining and awarding bodies such as the City & Guilds of London Institute (C&G) and Vocational Training Charitable Trust (VTCT) have even exported their qualifications to other countries (Hyland 1998). HE institutions could also be awarding bodies if they are the examiners for awards in partnership with FE colleges.

There are a variety of structures – and indeed of qualities – in the professional beauty-related bodies and associations in the UK, as well as qualities and standards for their awards. Such bodies include C&G, the British Association of Beauty Therapy & Cosmetology (BABTAC), the Federation of Holistic Therapists (FHT), The Guilds of Beauty Therapists and the Hair and Beauty Industry Authority (HABIA), all of which are internationally reputable. Moreover, HABIA is the government-appointed body that sets the standards for the beauty sector (HABIA 2013) and a leading body for health and safety, working closely with local government and the Health and Safety Executive to raise awareness and offer guidance on health and safety and hygienic working practices (HABIA 2007a).

These professional bodies have set the codes of practice for their members. The details range from professional image through regulations they need to comply with, to their behaviour toward customers. In other words, codes of practice are the statement of professional conduct with which members should

comply. For example, when learners enrol with awarding bodies, they must also comply with their codes of practice throughout their course of study.

The role of professional bodies in the UK also involves assisting the government in drafting relevant legislation and regulations, as well as providing information and technical advice for the relevant government authorities. More importantly, the UK's professional bodies request their members to undertake CPD, which they perceive as a way of maintaining career competence. The UK's professional bodies offer informal training and CPD (Lester 1999c). CPD is described as

> *"the maintenance and enhancement of the knowledge, expertise and competence of professionals throughout their careers according to a plan formulated with regard to the need of the professional, the employer, the profession and society."* (Madden, A. & Mitchell 1993:12)

It can, however, degenerate into a means of merely filling in a 'time-log' when members' learning needs are not properly identified.

Beauty professionals in the UK are also encouraged to register for practice, but this is not compulsory (Mintel 2007). For instance, HABIA (2016) provides a registration site, powered by Skills Active Register, covering the four occupations of beauty therapist, spa therapist, nail technician and make-up artist, together with industry entry requirements – which are not high. Various registration levels, criteria and validation processes would encourage professionals to register. However, this registration is not the same as professional status [such as architects with Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA), accountants with Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA) or investment analysts with Chartered Alternative Investment Analyst Association (CAIA)], which is awarded by the professional body but has to be renewed annually.

Too many professional and awarding bodies could pose problems, not only through disparate interpretations of standards and assessment criteria (Eraut

1994; Crolla et al. 2011; Hartless 2011), but also through a resulting disjuncture between organisations (West 2004). In 1991, Jessup (1991) pointed out that no agreement on the issue of conflicting standards between awarding bodies had been reached between the various bodies. However, in 1997 the QCA tried to deal with this issue by launching the Awarding Bodies' Common Accord (Ollin and Tucker 2008). This may underline the importance of formulating a single set of standards by establishing one professional body.

2.3 Beauty education and training in Taiwan and the UK

2.3.1 Beauty education and training in Taiwan

This section outlines the development of vocationally-oriented institutions in Taiwan, and discusses the status of a higher level of Technological and Vocational Education (TVE) in beauty related programmes. TVE is a term used in Taiwan for VET: both refer to the Taiwanese system of technical-vocational education (Wu and Lin 2010; MOE 2015). In order to prevent unnecessary confusion, VET will be used as a general term for Vocational Education and Training, while HVET will indicate a higher level of VET.

In Taiwan, the purpose of VET is closely linked to the economy and the nurturing of dedicated and creative talents in each field. Politics have always been a fundamental force throughout Taiwan's economic transformation. The VET system has undoubtedly played an important role in the growth and development of the Taiwanese economy (Tai et al. 2003; MOE 2011; MOE 2012). In its Taiwan New Economy Newsletter of 2012, the government states that manpower is its most important resource as well as the key to national development, as Taiwan is a small, densely-populated country lacking in natural resources (CEPD 2012). The recognition of VET's importance to Taiwan's economic transformation explains the changes in manpower demands from physical to intellectual to emotional capabilities within the nation, and indeed the world.

Two important measures for nurturing beauty practitioners are formal qualifications and Skills Certification (SC). Taiwan's qualification framework is briefly described in the following section, while SC will be analysed in Section 5.3.1.3.

2.3.1.1 Taiwan's Qualifications Framework

Taiwan's educational structure is influenced by the American educational system, although much of the country's infrastructure was established during the period of Japanese rule from 1895-1945 (Xie et al. 1999; Jagger et al. 1996:36; Tan 2010). In Taiwan there are two major pathways. In addition to the general academic educational route, the government implements a parallel vocational education system (Lee 2000; Wu 2000; MOE 2011).

Figure 2-8 shows the three Taiwanese VET administrative structural levels, run respectively by central, municipal and local authorities. The central authority is the Ministry of Education's (MOE) Department of Technological and Vocational Education (DTVE). Its four divisions are in charge of national VET and have direct supervisory control of national and private colleges of technology, including those at junior level, and national vocational high schools. The Department also shares responsibility with the other divisions for the supervision of national and private vocational high schools in the regions.

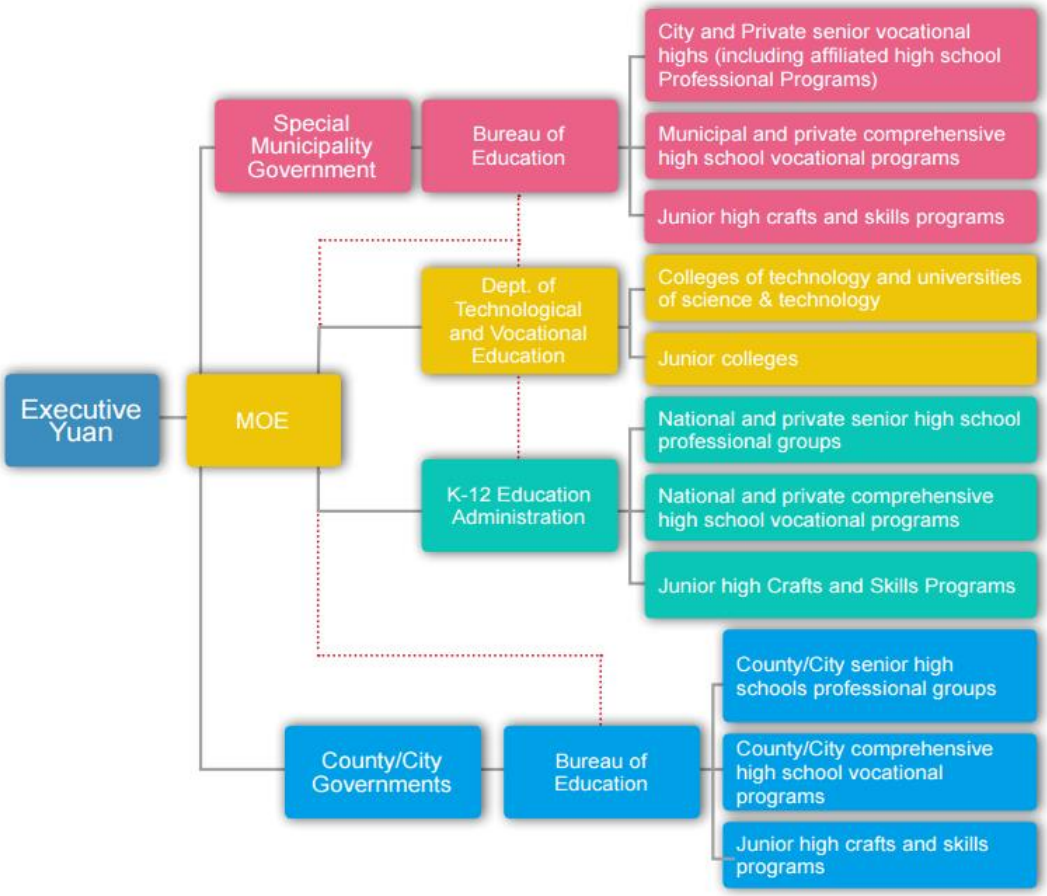


Figure 2-8: VET's administrative structure in Taiwan (MOE 2015:9)

The VET's aim is to promote a more flexible system with a more diversified curriculum that better serves the general public (MOE 2011). The VET system thus also plays a major role in providing lifelong learning opportunities for the Taiwanese population. VET encompasses the 'middle-level' (equivalent to the UK's FE) and 'higher-level' (equivalent to HE in the UK) (MOE 2011). Middle-level institutions are the technical and vocational programmes in FE sector such as junior high schools, senior vocational high schools and comprehensive schools (Lee 2000; Wu 2000). Occupational programmes are also offered even in the final year of junior high school. This type of programme is aimed particularly at career exploration. The idea of comprehensive school comes from the UK, although they were not as successful in Taiwan because the facilities and lecturers for vocational programmes were only available in general

high schools. HVET covers the range from junior college through technological colleges to universities of science and technology, providing a path for middle-level graduates to enter the higher education sector (Xie et al. 1999) (see Figure 2-9).

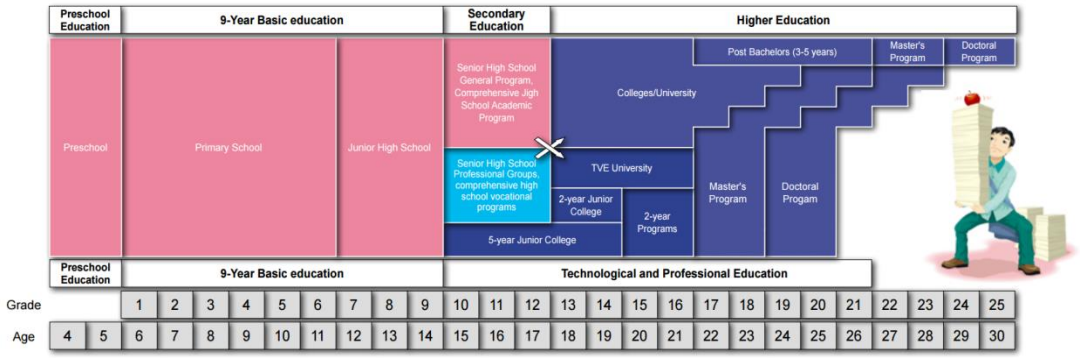


Figure 2-9: The Taiwanese educational system (MOE 2015:10-11)

Junior Colleges

Taiwanese junior colleges are either two- or five-year. The former enable middle-level graduates to upgrade their qualifications to higher-level ones through various routes, while five-year colleges offer continuity from middle- to higher-level without examinations. Two-year colleges provide day-time and evening programmes for middle-level graduates, while five-year colleges, for those aged 15-19, provide day-time courses only. After completion, graduates can choose whether to join the job market, set up their own businesses or undertake the next level, HE, in order to complete BA/BSc degrees.

Colleges of Technology and Universities of Science and Technology

The Colleges of Technology and Universities of Science and Technology are simply terms that together cover all HVET programmes. Both types of institution are established according to the University Act, intended primarily for "cultivating highly professional and practical talents" (MOE 2011:17).

Apart from offering two- and five-year junior college programmes, both types also provide four-year programmes for middle-level graduates. Two-year senior

programmes are also available for graduates from junior colleges to upgrade their diplomas to Bachelor's degrees.

	TVE High Schools	Junior Colleges	Colleges of Tech & Univ of Sci & Tech
Public	133,855 (38.7%)	10,965 (11.1%)	118,698 (21.1%)
Private	212,082 (61.3%)	88,056 (88.9%)	443,475 (78.9%)
Total	345,937	99,021	562,173

Table 2-2: Numerical and proportional comparison of students attending TVE[4] institutions (2014 Academic Year) (MOE 2015:23)

The statistics above show that the majority of VET institutions are private. This is especially the case with those involved in beauty-related programmes. In other words, no public institutions offer HVET beauty programmes, indicating that government funding of such institutions is less than public institutions (Zhang 2012). The reason could be that HVET institutions have normally been upgraded from junior colleges, in a similar manner to many UK polytechnics upgrading to university level. In the 2014 academic year there were 243 schools in the VET system, totalling 1,007,131 students (MOE 2015). The high enrolment rate led to the majority of FE beauty graduates upgrading their qualification to HVET. HVET beauty graduates will be the focus of this review.

The Taiwanese educational system has developed from a joint national examination model to an individual institutional one. Regardless of approach, however, the structure is based on the quantity rather than the quality of applicants. This does not mean that functional skills such as literacy and numeracy are not regarded as important, but rather that they should be

[4] TVE is an abbreviation of Technical Vocational Education that used in Taiwan to indicate Vocational Education and Training (VET).

weighted proportionally. On one hand, the entry requirements are determined by examination, which helps eliminate candidates without the requisite literacy and numeracy skills; on the other, applicants would come from a variety of educational backgrounds. It is evident that one mixed background learner in a class will pose a problem for teachers (Yang et al. 2005). The written examination only benefits candidates from the general, not the vocational, educational route.

HVET is part of the *Challenge 2008 National Development Plan*, which was developed as a response to the knowledge economy by Taiwan's Council for Economic Planning and Development (CEPD) (CEPD 2005) in order to provide a route to further education and junior colleges, and to improve knowledge and skills.

The HE qualification was devalued by high enrolment, resulting in a high unemployment rate (Liu & Liu 2014; Lin 2014). The term 'credential inflation' has recently been coined by Hu (2014), Lin (2014), Liu & Liu (2014), Ni (2014), Su (2014) and Yang (2014) to explain the devaluation of Taiwanese diplomas, a usage anticipated by Gokulsing et al. (1996:26) in *Beyond competence*. Chen (2014) disagrees that it would devalue the qualification, as she believes that credential inflation was caused by the changes of environment and values.

2.3.1.2 FE in beauty

For a long time skills were passed down through informal mentor-apprentice relationships or family business systems (MOE 2011). In the 1950s, local production was labour-intensive. The entry-level skills for beauty established at junior high school level ensured a sufficient labour supply to meet the demand (Yeh 2010). The following decade saw manufacturing becoming gradually more skills-intensive, resulting in the development of vocational high schools to train entry-level workers and the establishment of junior colleges to provide

education for middle-level technical and managerial positions (MOE 2011). In order to meet the demand for new skills, vocational education and training was developed alongside general education.

By the early 1970s, Taiwan had completed the transition to a skills-intensive production system. Beauty programmes at FE level were first introduced at the National Vocational High School under the category of Home Economy in 1974 (Lin 1995; Xu 1996; Lee 2008; Yeh 2010), a development that resulted from market demand. The increasing recognition given to such programmes is seen by comparing their 465 registered students in 1981 to the 18,355 in 58 vocational high school beauty-related programmes in 1995 (Xu 1996). There are two types of beauty education, formal and informal, the former referring to formal institutional vocational education and training with qualifications awarded by the Ministry of Education. Informal education occurs in settings such as public occupational training, intensive training, extended education, the private sector and on-the-job training (Xu 1996). These routes may result in the awarding of unofficial certificates. In order to widen the pool of participants, three modes of beauty-related study programmes are offered: full-time; part-time or evening; and rotating apprenticeships (equivalent to the Apprenticeship offered at senior vocational high school level).

The curricular framework results in a relative homogeneity of institutions. The problem with FE beauty education was over-teaching (teaching beyond the curricula for that educational level), as the competition between institutions was intense. It was acceptable because there was no progression route at the time: however, it has become a problem since the first HE programme was launched.

Taiwanese VET beauty programmes were heavily influenced by Japanese style, even though the educational structure was adopted from the American one. The reason for this Japanese influence is that the mainstream beauty textbooks, especially those used widely in the FE sector, are published by Lee, Xiu-Lian, whose family, education and career background is closely connected

to Japan, and who owns shares of Shiseido, a leading cosmetics company in Taiwan. However, some important features such as elements of aesthetic education and cultural injection into Japan's training structure that was recommended to Taiwan's beauty education (Hong & Huang 2003; Hsu 2003). Deeply rooted traditional Confucian values in Taiwanese society mean that the subject of beauty has never been considered as important, a neglect reflected in Taiwanese academia.

2.3.1.3 HE in beauty

The two-year beauty programme was established by Tainan University of Technology[5] under the category of Home Economy in 1988 for the purpose of training beauty professionals to intermediate–to-high level standards (Lin 1995). In 1993, a two-year Diploma in Cosmetic Science was instituted at Chia Nan University of Pharmacy and Science[6] (Chen et al. 2006:8). The following year, Tainan Junior College of Home Economics launched a programme of Cosmetology and Styling (Xu 1996; Department of Styling & Cosmetology 2005). Although the beauty programme was underdeveloped because of its classification under Home Economy for almost two decades, demand for advanced graduates has finally forced the government to make the beauty programme independent.

Chia Nan College of Pharmacy and Science first established two-year Cosmetic Science programme in junior College in 1993 and a top-up two-year programme in Cosmetic Science for middle-level graduates leading to a Bachelor's degree in 1998 (Chen et al. 2006; Lin n.d.). A few years later, a four-year Beauty programme was launched to promote the continuity of education and training

[5] Formally Tainan Junior College of Home Economics in Taiwan

[6] Formally the College of Pharmacy and Science in Taiwan

and close the gap between the two-year junior college diploma and the two-year senior college top-up programme.

Between 2000 and 2014, Taiwanese HVET grew from 519,725 students[7] in 2000 (Wu 2000) to 661,194 students[8] in 2014 (MOE 2015) (see Table 2-2). The number for junior colleges dropped dramatically because of the new programmes offered by the four-year colleges and universities of technology. The positive outcome of the coherent four-year programme has been to bridge the gap between junior and senior colleges.

The rapid expansion of HE and the strategy of widening the pool of participants has provided FE learners and vocation-based practitioners with a progression route, but it has not increased students' competence, nor has it really met the industry's needs (Huang 2003). According to the MOE (2012), there are over one million BA and more than 200,000 Master's and Doctoral graduates today in Taiwan, but the country still suffers from a shortage of talented people. This indicates that lacking in training strategies and lacking in a connection with industry would result in overly supply but not able to fill the shortage.

The expansion of HVET institutions has resulted in a fall in demand compared to supply, an issue discussed at the beginning of this section. HVET institutes have lowered their entry standards, as evidenced by the acceptance rate for the academic year 2012/13, which, according to CAN's report (Central News Agency) (Xu 2012) reached 92.2 per cent across 86 colleges and universities of technology.

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[7] 67,379 students from colleges and universities of technology and 452,346 students from junior colleges of technology

[8] 562,173 and 99,021 students respectively

The scope of beauty education is broad, and its HE components overlap with those of FE, although programme titles and contents vary. Current programmes fall into the three categories of: cosmetic sciences and applied cosmetics; cosmetology and styling/applied cosmetology; and beauty and health-related programmes. Although each category seems to have its own features, the curriculum differs more in the proportion of these categories allocated to each subject.

Huang's (2003:28) 2000 survey of satisfaction levels regarding the cooperation between industry and academia concludes that the field experience of teaching professionals was noticeably inadequate, causing a gap between industry and academia that has led in turn to graduates lacking confidence upon entering the job market. Furthermore, 74% of HE beauty graduates found that what they learned could not be applied to the workplace, so they had to quickly learn the skills required during pre-job training. Huang further recommends that the educational sector improve in five respects: increasing industry knowledge, communication skills, specialist knowledge and practical skills, work ethic and customer service. This recommendation indicates that the educational sector does not function as stated.

Although beauty-related programmes have been upgraded to the university level, the facilities, teaching staff and curricula were not prepared. Huang and Zhan (2005) highlight that the lack of strategy for curriculum design not only fails to respond to industry needs promptly, but also leads to college-level beauty graduates' unrealistic expectations. Hong and Huang's (2003) and Xu's (2003) comparison of Taiwanese beauty education with Japanese aesthetic education reveals that the former lacks cultural and aesthetic ingredients. Ironically, an aesthetic sense should be at the heart of the beauty profession, concerned as it is with conveying the concept of beauty to clients.

Lin and Tseng (2007:137) claim that Taiwan's level of beauty education is the highest in the world. The number and rapid growth of technological universities

in proportion to its population possibly bears this out in simple numeric terms, but the quality of that HVET education arguably does not match its quantity. It has also been noted that although Taiwanese beauty professionals are highly experienced and skilled, their lack of an international outlook and the language barrier places them at a disadvantage in the global marketplace.

HVET recruits its students through the Multi-Channel Admission System (see Figure 2-10), which employs four approaches: entry exams, recommendations, selections and applications. Sitting an entry exam is the most common approach of entering HVET and it is normally used for national and independent recruitment. The other approaches would be restricted in numbers. A National Skills Competition win and obtaining a National Occupational License (NOL) are considered as Skill Excellence[9]. The channel is open to applicants from vocational high schools as well as academically-oriented applicants from general high schools, whether or not they have backgrounds in beauty (MOE 2015). As Yang et al. (2005:163) state, "this mixture of students with diverse backgrounds not only challenges the teaching ability of facult[ies], but also generates pressure on student learning."

[9] Skill Excellence is a term used in government documentation indicating someone is excellent in skills performance, which can be used to apply to HVET.

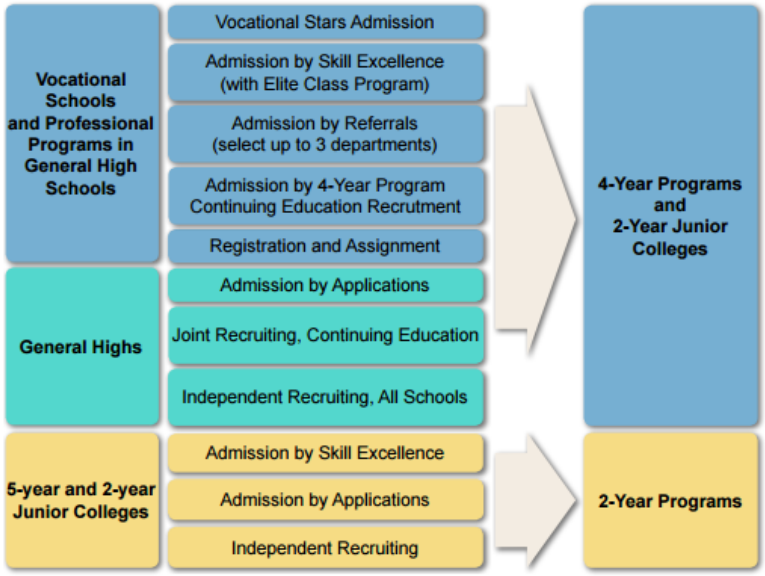

Figure 2-10: The multi-channel admission system for TVE (VET) Students (MOE 2015)

2.3.2 Beauty education and training in the UK

The VET system in the UK provides various options and flexible learning structures for school leavers to choose their career pathways. Hair and beauty are two major sectors of the beauty industry. They include beauty therapy (including artistic and theatrical make-up and special effects and nail technology) and general hairdressing programmes. Although there are certain areas of overlap between those sectors, each has its own distinctive features. This section focuses on the higher level of vocational education and the training system in beauty therapy-related programmes.

Before discussing HVET in the UK, a brief introduction to VET in the FE sector is necessary in order to draw a complete picture of beauty education in Taiwan.

2.3.2.1 The UK Qualifications Framework

The UK Qualifications Framework is a systemic level of qualification. In 2008, the Framework was changed from the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) to the Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF) (Harris 2010): see Figure 2-11. It was intended to bring vocational and academic qualifications together

on to one framework (QCDA 2010). The main difference between the NQF and the QCF is that not only can each QCF unit be assigned both a level and credit value, but it can also be assessed individually for a specific developmental need. This replacement aimed to provide a flexible, transferable and recognisable qualification system (Blinko 2011).

In 2015, a new Regulated Qualification Framework (RQF) was introduced, that covers all attainments at all levels. RQF is illustrated as a 'bookcase' (see Figure 2-12), using levels to indicate the difficulty and complexity and size to demonstrate the different study and assessment time. QCF will be completely discarded by 31 December 2017 (Ofqual 2015a; Ofqual 2015b). There are small differences in the level descriptors and terms used between RQF and QCF, to reduce misunderstandings present in QCF (Ofqual 2015a). The difference between both is that it is claimed that QCF is more prescriptive, while RQF is considered more descriptive (Ofqual 2015a). There are three designations of QCF qualification based on credit size: Award, Certificate and Diploma, ranging from entry level to level 8 (Blinko 2011:141; Accredited Qualifications 2012b). Although these titles can be used under RQF, they are defined by Total Qualification Time (TQT): the credit value is allocated by the awarding body, but must be equal to a tenth of the TQT assigned to that qualification (Ofqual 2015a). In addition, QCF are built up from units of learning and credit values according to the levels of difficulty. Whereas, in RQF, the learning hours including assessment time are built up toward TQT. In other words, at same level, different qualifications could take different TQT or different levels could have a similar TQT. It can be seen that RQF tends to include all sorts of learning including individual study, with assessment taking place at the workplace as well as taught courses (Benson 2015). It seems to be more flexible: however, it may also increase the difficulty in identifying so-called 'learning hours' in an informal setting. Currently, the UK's education structure is

in a transition from QCF to RQF. However, its efficacy in this regard will take time to determine.

In addition, the Framework for Higher Education Qualifications (FHEQ) is designed for academic HE qualifications and covers Level 4 to Level 8 (QAA 2014). RQF maps against the Framework for Higher Education Qualifications (FHEQ), so that they are aligned with and correspond to each other. Figure 2-11 shows the comparison of qualifications under QCF, RQF and FHEQ at each Level. It can be seen that RQF qualifications are vocationally focused, although Benson (2015) argues that RQF covers both academic and vocational qualifications.

Level	QCF examples	RQF examples	FHEQ examples
Entry	- Entry level awards, certificates and diplomas - Foundation Learning Tier pathways - Functional Skills at Entry level	- Entry level certificate - Entry level Skills for Life - Entry level award, certificate and diploma - Entry level Functional Skills - Entry level Foundation Learning	
1	- BTEC awards, certificates and diplomas at level 1 - Functional Skills level 1 - OCR Nationals - Foundation Learning Tier pathways	- GCSE (grades D-G) - Key Skills level 1 - NVQ level 1 - Skills for Life level 1 - Foundation diploma - BTEC award, certificate and diploma level 1 - Foundation Learning level 1 - Functional Skills level 1 - Cambridge National level 1	
2	- BTEC awards, certificates and diplomas at level 2 - Functional Skills level 2	- GCSE (grades A*-C) - Key Skills level 2 - NVQ level 2 - Skills for Life level 2 - Higher diploma - BTEC award, certificate and diploma level 2 - Functional Skills level 2 - Cambridge National level 2 - Cambridge Technical level 2	
3	- BTEC awards, certificates and diplomas at level 3 - BTEC Nationals - OCR Nationals	- AS and A level - Advanced Extension Award - Cambridge International award - International Baccalaureate - Key Skills level 3 - NVQ level 3 - Advanced diploma - Progression diploma - BTEC award, certificate and diploma level 3 - BTEC National - Cambridge Technical level 3	
4	-BTEC Professional Diplomas, Certificates and Awards	- HNC - Certificate of higher education - Key Skills level 4 - NVQ level 4 - BTEC Professional award, certificate and diploma level 4	- Certificate of higher education - HNC
5	-HNCs and HNDs -BTEC Professional Diplomas, Certificates and Awards	- HND - NVQ level 4 - Higher diploma - BTEC Professional award, certificate and diploma level 5	- Diploma of higher education - Diploma of further education - Foundation degree - HND
6	-BTEC Advanced Professional Diplomas, Certificates and Awards	- NVQ level 4 - BTEC Advanced Professional award, certify cate and diploma level 6	- Bachelor's degree - Graduate certificate - Graduate diploma
7	-Advanced professional awards, certify cates and diplomas	- BTEC Advanced Professional award, certify cate and diploma level 7 - Fellowship and fellowship diploma - Postgraduate certificate - Postgraduate diploma - NVQ level 5 - BTEC Advanced Professional award, certify cate and diploma level 7	- Master's degree - Postgraduate certificate - Postgraduate diploma
8	-Award, certificate and diploma in strategic direction	- NVQs level 5 - Vocational qualifications level 8	- Doctorate

Figure 2-11: comparison of QCF, RQF and FHEQ

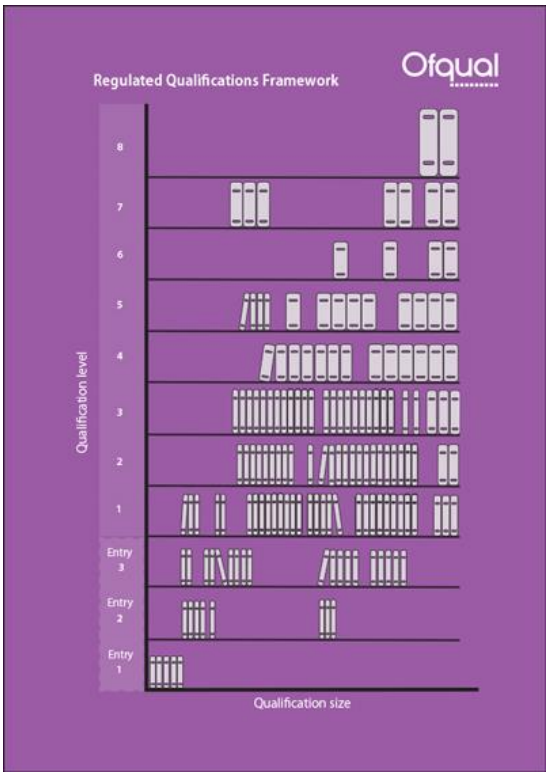

Figure 2-12 : Regulated Qualification Framework (Ofqual 2016)

2.3.2.2 The FE sector

Further education is identified as post-compulsory education at pre-degree level, Level 1 (Foundation Diploma), Level 2 (Higher Diploma) to Level 3 (Advanced Diploma), which may include qualifications also available at the level of compulsory schooling (Ofqual 2011). The learning age cluster in FE can be generally divided into three groups: under-16s, 16-19s and over-19s. The mode of study includes full-time, part-time and work-based study. It also provides various types of vocational education and training across different occupations.

FE evolved from evening classes after work into extended education for individuals wishing to pursue the vocational route (Bailey 2002). Qualifications for beauty-related VET programmes include Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC) national diplomas, National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and Vocationally Related Qualifications (VRQs): these types of qualification are all developed from the National Occupational Standards (NOS) offered by the

leading examining boards and awarding bodies in the Beauty Industry including City & Guilds (C&G)[10], Vocational Training Charitable Trust (VTCT)[11] and Pearson[12]. These awarding bodies play an important role in quality assurance in the VET system. They also promote their qualifications overseas.

The vocational qualifications include the NVQ and BTEC from Entry level to Higher National Diplomas. BTEC provides a form of academic-based vocational qualification that can lead to employment, further study such as an HND or HNC, or HE. It is recognised in more than 80 countries worldwide and is widely available, with over 1.1 million learners annually (Pearson 2016). The assessment is normally based on coursework, case studies and evidence of skills gained. Grades are Pass, Merit or Distinction.

In a move towards competence-based education, particularly in the FE sector, NVQs were launched in 1986 (Hyland 1993a; Gospel 1997; Bates 1998; Hyland 1998; Roodhouse 1999; Stevens 1999; Watkins 1999; Greatorex 2000; Matlay 2000; Taylor 2000; Wu & Chen 2001; Ertl 2002; Swailes 2003; Roodhouse & Hemsworth 2004; Swailes & Roodhouse 2004; Hyland 2006; Davey & Fuller 2010; Wolf 2011; Wu 2011). These are considered to be the first competence-based qualifications launched in the UK. These qualifications are intended to be

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[10] City & Guilds (C&G) was founded in 1878, and today works with over 10,000 training centres and providers in 80 countries worldwide, offering more than 500 qualifications across 28 industries with 2 million learners. (C&G 2016).

[11] Established for over 50 years, VTCT is also an examining board and government-approved awarding organisation for hairdressing and beauty, offering NVQs, SVQs and VRQs from Entry level up to Level 4 (VTCT 2016).

[12] Pearson owns Edexcel, the Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC) and other related qualifications (Pearson 2016). Pearson is a leading provider of vocational qualifications and the largest awarding organisation, offering general, academic and vocational qualifications in the UK and internationally (Hall 1990).

job-related, which since 2011 has become 'work-based learning' and 'apprenticeships'. All NVQs comprise units that are in turn composed of elements. Evidence demonstrating the candidate's competence, understanding and knowledge must be gathered for each element. Each element is composed of performance criteria, which are ways of setting the standard according to which the learner must be able to perform the task described in that element, and all of which must be met in order to complete the element (West 2004).

NVQs have been criticised as adopting a mechanical approach, with crude fail or pass assessment criteria (Ward 1993; Hunma et al. 2005). NVQs are also considered as narrow in scope, demanding minimal performance, lacking theoretical content and focusing overly on low-level tasks (Hyland 1998). Additionally, NVQs seem to focus on the evidence itself rather than how the evidence is collected. West (2004) points to their technical, moral and market defects. However, NVQs have existed for almost three decades and are more widely recognised by industries than other vocational qualifications. In 2008, when the QCF was introduced, NVQs ceased to be a distinct category of qualification: however, due to the wide industry recognition of the term, it was retained by Ofqual (Lester 2011).

Hyland (1998) strongly objects to the export of NVQs to other countries until their deficiencies have been rectified. However, NVQs were imported into Taiwan as IVQs and is widely accepted. IVQ Level 2 (equivalent to NVQ Level 2) was promoted to HE level and is now perceived as a higher level of vocational certification. The assessment methods and evidence for IVQs were modified in order to meet Taiwanese market conditions.

In the UK, once NVQs had shifted to work-based qualifications, VRQs were launched as a college-based qualification in 2011. Both NVQs and VRQs are available at college, but NVQs are only established at work-based learning programme such as Apprenticeships; VRQs has considered to be a college-based learning qualification. These are now regarded as more knowledge-

based, appropriate for college environments, even though Hiscock et al. (2010) recognise them as skills-based qualifications. The government has promoted them as college-based qualifications by funding them. In such qualifications, the attention is on what students should learn rather than be able to do, whereas in competence-based approaches such as NVQs, the focus is on practitioner competence.

The difference between NVQs and VRQs has been identified as the theoretical input. VRQs require theoretical testing and assignments as evidence, while NVQs are competence-based qualifications in which the theoretical elements are reduced to a minimum (Taylor 2008). NVQs prepare candidates directly for work (Goldsbro and White 2009), while VRQs are intended to prepare them for employment. VRQ learning outcomes have been simplified, the units are much smaller and the approaches more flexible than those of other qualifications (Harris 2010).

Another important difference is that assessment is under real working conditions involving paying clients with NVQs, whereas VRQs employ peer assessment. NVQs aim to increase competence, VRQs to prepare candidates for employment. The subtle difference is their level of confidence upon attaining the qualification. VRQs could lead to awkward performance when practising or being assessed with peers in the class, which might result in a lack of confidence when working with real clients. The purpose of preparing for employment actually weakens the candidate's competence. Although it is understandably difficulty for educational institutions to find real clients in business settings, the business environment should be made more transparent to the public rather than qualifications being adapted to a closed commercial milieu. Although the new VRQs have made qualifications more achievable, they are not necessary positive in terms of competence levels.

As well as BTEC, NVQs/SVQs and VRQs, ITECs[13] and IVQs are available overseas. However, the standards, ranges and performing criteria of ITECs, IVQs, NVQs and or VRQs are very similar because their development was based on NOS. The only difference is the assessment methods and procedures of NVQs and IVQs, a difference caused by cultural diversity and learning environments. For example, in Taiwan, the IVQ Level 2 in beauty therapy is an optional certification, so candidates are only required to work and collect their own evidence by photographing the end products rather than being assessed in their interactions with real clients.

The vocational education and training qualification for beauty related programmes in FE is shown below (See Table 2-3).

	BTEC	**NVQ**	**VRQs**
	Academic-based	**Competence-based**	**Knowledge-based**
Beauty Therapy		Level 1	Level 1
	BTEC First Award, Certificate and Diploma in Beauty Therapy	Level 2	Level 2 Award, Certificate and Diploma
	BTEC National Award, Certificate and Diploma in Beauty Therapy Sciences	Level 3	Level 3 Award, Certificate and Diploma
Make-up		Level 1	Level 1
	BTEC First Award, Certificate and Diploma in Production Arts (Make-up)	Level 2 (included in Beauty Therapy)	Level 2 Award, Certificate and Diploma in Beauty Therapy
	BTEC National Award, Certificate and Diploma in Production Arts (Make-up)	Level 3 (included in Beauty Therapy)	Level 3 Award, Certificate and Diploma in Beauty Therapy
Hairdressing		Level 1	Level 1
	BTEC First Award, Certificate and Diploma in Hairdressing	Level 2	Level 2 Award, Certificate and Diploma
	BTEC National Award, Certificate and Diploma in Hairdressing	Level 3	Level 3 Award, Certificate and Diploma

Table 2-3: A comparison of FE qualifications

[13] ITEC (International Therapy Examination Council) is an national and international awarding/examining board, providing a variety of vocational qualifications relating to therapy since 1947 (ITEC 2015).

As Table 2-3 shows, make-up still falls into the category of beauty therapy for NVQs and VRQs. In the BTEC national programme, make-up is also categorised under Production Team in Performing Arts. There is a variety of backstage support roles within performing arts and music, including make-up, set design and construction, and stage management. Edexcel's BTEC Level 3 National Awards, Certificates and Diplomas in Production Arts offer a wide range of specialisms, from arts management to costume (BTEC Nationals 2009).

Last but not least, in addition to the classroom-based learning mode, the Apprenticeship scheme is another type of learning mode that takes place at workplace. Not only has the UK government been actively promoting this type of learning, but also ensure that its progression route to higher level is unimpeded. Although apprenticeships have assumed various forms, they are currently an important training structure offering work-based learning qualifications. They have been widely promoted in recent years.

There are three levels of apprenticeship available to those aged 16 and over: Intermediate, Advanced and Higher Apprenticeships. The intermediate-level apprenticeship is a work-based learning qualification working towards NVQ Level 2, while the advanced level is equivalent to NVQ Level 3. Due to the demand for programmes such as engineering, accounting, construction and management, the Higher Apprenticeship at Level 4 was introduced in 2004 (Brockmann et al. 2010; HABIA 2011). Higher Apprenticeships (HAs) are available at Levels 4 and 5, but Levels 6 and 7 will be coming later.

However, apprenticeships in the hair and beauty sector are only available at intermediate and advanced levels. Apprentices aged under 19, or over 19 in the first year, are entitled to £3.30 per hour in the first year and after that, they can receive the full minimum wage rate (Delebarre 2015:8). In addition, the cost of training for apprentices aged 16 to 18 is fully paid by the local funding body. Those aged 19-24 are 50 per cent funded (HABIA n.d.).

The training is both on- and off-the-job, with learners spending time in the workplace and with training providers working towards work-based qualifications such as NVQs, SVQs and Diplomas at Level 2 or 3 and transferable skills such as communication, functional skills and ICT. The types of apprenticeship may vary between England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales, which may cause confusion, although all apprenticeships follow a similar pattern.

A major change coming soon in the structure and funding strategy is from 'Apprenticeship frameworks' to 'Apprenticeship standards'. Taking the beauty sector as an example, although the Apprenticeship standards is available for delivery, this 'employer-designed' standard will be fully ready to use in the academic year of 2017-2018 (GOV.UK 2014).

The FE entry requirements are different to those for HE. For Level 2 and 3 in Beauty Therapy between the ages of 16 and 18 in the FE sector, a GCSE in English, a previous qualification in a relevant subject, 80 per cent attendance and two positive references at the interview and enrolment stage are required. Sketch or art portfolios are required for Artistic Make-up and Special Effects courses. Mature learners are treated flexibly.

The government has recently established a new Diploma in Hair and Beauty Studies for those aged 14 to 16 (Goldsbro and White 2009) (Get Connected Sheffield.com 2010), in order to attract younger learners interested in a work-related qualification. The government's 2005 White Paper on 14-19 Education and Skills proposes creating a number of Specialist Learning Lines related to sectors significant to the UK economy. Hair and beauty is identified as one of the fourteen Specialist Learning Lines (HABIA 2012). More importantly, the QCF provides all qualifications at the higher level of education and training in order to enable transition to degree level.

The criteria for each level in FE include functional skills, personal, learning and thinking skills (PLTS), project and work experience apart from subject knowledge, skills and understanding, and attributes.

Functional Skills	Personal, Learning and Thinking Skills (PLTS)	Project
Mathematics	Independent enquiry	Investigate skill
English	Creative thinking	Project management skills
Information and Communication Technology (ICT)	Reflective learning	
	Team working	
	Self-managing	
	Effective participation	

Figure 2-13: Generic Learning Component (Ofqual 2011)

10 days of work experience is the minimum requirement for each level of FE (Ofqual 2011:10). The very slight difference between foundation and higher level projects resides in the assessment of objectives and descriptors. Foundation projects tend to focus on the ability to select, obtain, identify and consider (p14), while higher-level projects emphasise abilities related to research, organisation, interpretation and evaluation (p19-20) (Ofqual 2011). The major difference can be seen at extended project level. These require the ability to contribute, develop and extend skills using a breadth and depth of knowledge (p21-22).

2.3.2.3 The HE sector

In HE level, very few studies specifically discuss the progression route for hair and beauty. One of those that do is produced by the University Vocational Awards Council (UVAC), sponsored by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC)[14]. It examines the progression route for the Advanced Apprenticeship in Hair and

[14] The Skills Funding Agency and the Young People's Learning Agency were established in 2010 to replace the Learning and Skills Council (LRS) (gov.uk n.d.).

Beauty (Anderson and Hemsworth 2005). Some FE learners may apply through University and College Admissions Services (UCAS)[15] or an internal path within the same institution as long as the entrance requirements are met. The programmes such as Artistic Make-up and Special Effects (AMSE) would specifically require the make-up and art portfolios at interview. The progression route from FE to HE for the beauty domain includes Foundation Degrees (Fds), the Higher National Diploma (HND) and the Higher National Certificate (HNC). These are classified as 'sub-degrees' (Coleman and Bekhradnia 2011), these being work-based HE programmes (Taylor 2008) that are developed to bridge the gap between education and industry (Anderson and Hemsworth 2005).

Types of HVET qualification include BTEC Higher Nationals (HNs) and Foundation Degrees (Fds) (see Table 2-4) (HEFCE 2009) and newly-introduced higher apprenticeship levels (Apprenticeship Frameworks Online n.d.). HNs include one-year full-time (two-year part-time) HNC and two-year full-time (three-year part-time) HND Edexcel awards. Fds, on the other hand, are a new type of university-validated vocational degree. Both HNs and Fds can top-up with one more year to a full degree (Anderson & Hemsworth 2005).

According to their credit value, there are three types of qualification, namely Award, Certificate and Diploma. For BTEC/ Pearson awards, after completing year one of the HVET course, which contains 120 credits, the learner will be awarded a certificate level i.e. HNC. Completing a two-year programme will obtain a HND or FD, which accumulates 240 credits. Moreover, once a top up of the last year is achieved, to complete a full 360 credits, learners will be honoured with a Bachelor degree. This mirrors the CertHE and DipHE/ FD in universities. Based on the credit-based system, a Bachelor degree, in the UK, contains 360 credits for a three years course. Each credit is equivalent to 10

[15] This is the general structure for applicants to HE in the UK.

hours guided learning hours (Accredited Qualifications, 2012). Guided learning hours (Regulated Qualifications Framework 2016) or notional learning hours (QAA 2009) indicate that the learning hours being taught or supervised including taught course, individual study, assessment time, learning at workplaces (Benson 2015). Though, UK vocational qualifications are flexible, so learners could decide when to discontinue and to continue according to their pace.

A major difference between FE and HE is that the latter's awarding body is its own institution. The three types of HE institution in the UK are universities, university colleges and colleges. The difference between them is that a university needs to be established by Royal Charter, Act of Parliament or order of the Privy Council and has its own degree-awarding power (DAP) (Department for Business Innovation & Skills 2015a; HEFCE 2015; QAA 2016).

Types of HVE qualification		Description
BTEC Higher Nationals Qualifications	HNC	• 1 year full-time (2 years part-time) • Usually studied on the job • Stand-alone qualification • Good reputation with employers • Some progression to HND or degree possible
	HND	• 2 year full-time (3 years part-time) • Equivalent to first 2 years of a degree • Stand-alone qualification • Many include work experience modules • Many universities offer 'top-up' courses to degree • Large subject range
Foundation Degrees		• The new style of vocational degree • Validated by universities • Foundation degrees integrate academic and work-related learning • Employers must have a say in their design, so they equip learners with the knowledge, understanding and skills relevant to their employment • Improve employment prospects • Success will guarantee progression to Honours degrees • Mostly run in FE colleges

Table 2-4: Types of HVET qualification

Fds, which are knowledge-based qualifications, were launched in 2000 (Rubery 2010; Taylor 2008; QAA 2010), specifically to form partnerships between colleges, universities and employers. They have become one of the fastest-growing higher education qualifications in the UK. In 2001, 4,000 students were studying on Foundation degree programmes – in 2010 the figure was 120,000 (Rubery 2010:25). A partnership was developed between FE, HE and industry for Fds to remedy the skills deficiency on the demand side and to contribute to

the policy of widening participation and life-long learning, and their popularity can be seen from the increase in enrolment from 4,000 in the first year to three times that number a decade later (Rubery 2010:25). It is seen as a qualification that bridges FE and HE sectors (Bathmaker et al. 2008; Anderson and Hemsworth 2005).

Today's beauty-related HVET offers two types of qualification, Beauty Therapy and Make-Up-related programmes, both awarded by HE institutions at sub-degree level such as Foundation degrees, Diplomas of Higher Education and Higher National Diplomas and at undergraduate degree level (UK NARIC 2005). So far, the majority only offer the final top-up year at university to complete a BA.

Beauty-related programmes are currently available up to degree level in a vocational form. In order to create a seamless progression from FE to HE, the government has endeavoured to develop Fds/HNC/HND as a transition mechanism. However, these transitions from FE to HE or HNC/HND/Fds to the top-up year necessary for the BA affect other issues.

Opening up the HE route to FE learners and working adults such as practitioners and professionals is certainly an important step for vocational education and the training sector. Insufficient facilities, equipment and human resources in universities has led to the development of a major approach to widening participation, an increase in "the delivery of HE in FE" (Rammell 2008). In other words, HE programmes are being delivered in local FE and some Sixth Form colleges as well as in universities (Bathmaker et al. 2008).

By 2009/10 the number of colleges delivering HE courses had risen to 259 (AoC 2012). The government predicts that by 2020, 40 per cent of jobs will require skills at Level 4 or above, and that qualifications will have to be much more work-related (UVAC 2007). So far, about 10 per cent of degrees are delivered in FE institutions by the authority and awarding power of a university (UK NARIC

2005). The objections to this are that the quality of teaching and the learning environments at FE vary and may be difficult to compare with the environment and resources provided at a university. Additionally, the transition from HVET in FE establishments to top-up final years in HVET ones may raise issues that remain relatively neglected in the existing literature.

The progression from FE to HVET for beauty-related programmes is fairly well-defined, albeit with a very limited range of options. There are two quite distinct paths in HVET for such programmes, one - whose framework was produced by HABIA (2006) - related to the beauty therapy industry, and the other related to make-up studies in theatre, TV and films.

The former focuses on the development of higher-level skills within the beauty therapy context and leads to employment, while the latter is more closely related to the creative industries. Make-up programmes may be established under the music and theatre or performing arts categories. The courses can range from make-up studies in musical, theatrical, photographic, TV or film production teams to the HNDs in Make-up Artistry, which were validated in 2006 (SQA 2006), or to Fds in Artistic Make-up and Special Effects (Leicester College 2012). However, there is very little take-up of the study of the subject of make-up.

Although Bathmaker et al. (2008) observe that delivering HE programmes in small teaching groups with direct learning support in the FE sector may be seen as positive, 'spoon-feeding' (p134) may occur at HVET level. In addition, FE facilities such as libraries and computing and social areas, as well as the intellectual quality of its teaching and learning, may not be comparable to its HE equivalent.

The transition from FE to HE has revealed the challenges to academic ability, such as writing and IT skills (Anderson & Hemsworth 2005) although very few studies have investigated the transition between FE to HVET (up to Level 4)

and HVET (Level 5) to HE (the top-up year). The lack of academic training in FE constitutes a barrier to FE school leavers wanting to upgrade to HE. FE's identity has somehow been lost in the transition. After all, that sector is meant to prepare students for employment rather than simply increasing their academic abilities.

2.4 Collaboration between education and industry

Collaboration between education and industry in agreeing the establishment of standards is essential, which also relates to what is expected at different levels of competence and degrees of achievement or progression within the profession.

2.4.1 The concept of collaboration

The focus of this study has also drawn on the effectiveness of collaboration between education and industry due to the gap identified in Taiwan. The significance of collaboration not only can find a common ground in setting the standard, identifying competences for levels of development, designing curriculum/training programmes and forecasting future direction between different parties, but also they can share and exchange the knowledge and practice in an implicit manner. Although education and industry have held different goals, ultimately both sectors would come to a mutual benefit in different ways from the collaboration. Without that, the collaboration would not exist. In order to maintain this healthy relationship, an effective collaboration would be important.

An effective collaboration can succeed only if the different goals can be synergised and complement each other to facilitate the goals effectively (Dooley & Kirk 2007:331). Since a standard is identified to be one of the solutions for alleviating the mismatching problem between education and industry, the goals setting could be based on the standard, for example. The standard has to be

agreed within the relevant stakeholders of the domain, especially between education and industry.

Concerning the theory of collaboration, Wood & Gray (1991) argue that it should begin with a definition. However, agreeing with Thomson et al. (2009), they recognise that there is not an accurate definition of collaboration; thus, its definition tends to imply joint action. They argue that "a general theory of collaboration must begin with a definition of the phenomena that encompasses all observable forms and excludes irrelevant issues." (p143) The collaboration in Wood & Gray's (1991) argument seems aimed at solving the problem domain in a temporary collaboration. However, the collaboration could be built upon a long-term working relationship and mutual benefit.

Wood & Gray (1991) identified the elements of collaboration from the reviewed literatures regarding the definition of collaboration and expanded them further to include stakeholders of the domain, autonomy, interactive process, shared rules/norms/structures, action or decision, direction of the domain, and outcomes. Autonomy was valued highly in any collaboration as their individual identification and independence need to remain (Wood & Gray 1991; Thomson et al. 2009). In the collaboration, there is always a dilemma between self-interest and collaborative interest. Direction of the domain is highlighted by Wood & Gray (1991:148) as it concerns the scope of the action/decision and the impact on future relationships among the stakeholders.

Hence, the definition and theory of collaboration could be very broad according to types, purposes and interpretation of collaboration (Thomson et al. 2009). However, an employed definition established for this study is an interactive process of joint decision making based on a shared objective, a mutual interest, and agreed rules, norms and structures.

Collaboration, co-operation, and partnership are sometimes used as interchangeable terms, while sometimes they are distinguished because of a

subtle difference (Jones & Thomas 2007). For instance, Jamal & Getz (1995) distinguish collaboration as having more complex connotations compared with co-operation. Co-operation indicates a working relationship under a purposeful end: whereas, collaboration allows the interpretation and conditions to be enclosed. Partnership is commonly used as a synonym of collaboration because they have a lot in common. The definition of partnership is a joint venture between different parties with mutual trust and a continuing collaborative relationship (Mackintosh 1992).

There are numerous types of collaboration such as collaboration between government, education and industry (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff 2000), partnership between FE and HE (Abramson et al. 1996), collaboration between education and industry (Powers R. et al. 1988) or between non-profit organisations and industry (Wymer & Samu 2003) or between industries and so on. The definition and elements of collaboration would be clearly established once the type of collaboration is formed.

An effective collaboration would require some important criteria to facilitate the collaboration. Criteria of an effective collaboration include:

- Commitment, trust and equal contribution (Barnes et al. 2002).
- Mutual interests (Dooley & Kirk 2007)
- Incentives (Inzelt 2004)
- "Defining common goals, sharing expectations, planning activities, measuring outcomes and accommodating feedback" (Beckman et al. 1997:54)

It is important to note that the principle of collaboration is a joint project, so the parties involved in the collaborative project must to contribute their part in order to achieve the common goal. Mackintosh (1992) proposed three models of partnership: 'synergy', 'transformation' and 'budget enlargement'. The model

of synergy in partnership is to complement the differences in objectives; while transformation is to find a mutual ground in the partnership. Budget enlargement is a partnership that is built on funding support from the third party. Synergy was considered to be the desirable model for a partnership between public and private sectors as, apart from the expected return from the collaboration, a certain level of social responsibility will be served for the purpose.

However, two stakeholders, education and industry, are the most contrasting systems among all. Education aims at long-term value: whereas, industry focuses on short-term profit. This type of collaboration in the model of transformation tends to pull the direction towards their goal to maximise their benefit even though they aim to find a common ground (Mackintosh 1992). Bruneel et al. (2010) highlight the barriers that exist between the collaboration between education and industry and point out various conflicts in collaboration. For instance, the former targets the generation of new knowledge that could be published; whereas, the latter has its feature of preserving valuable knowledge confidentially (Bruneel et al. 2010). They propose three tactics that could alleviate the barriers between two sectors, which are collaboration experience, various channels and high degree of trust.

Meanwhile, two of them also have a very subtle relationship among all as education is the supply side to fulfil the demand end - industry. Collaboration is all about communication and team-working skills (Yorke 2006). This also reflects experts' communication and team-working skills. In this case, perhaps, the collaboration between education and industry may require a coordinating/agency unit or a professional body to facilitate the communication/interaction between them. Bloedon & Stokes (1994:45) suggest that the co-ordinator/agent requires 'a technical background', 'an understanding of how the university system works' and 'interpersonal skills'. The role is very different to Wood & Gray's (1991) convener in a collaboration. The convener

does not need to be a stakeholder with the field and he/she is to influence the stakeholders and intervene in the collaborative process. Whereas, the co-ordinator here aims to facilitate the collaborative process and assist the communication between education and industry, based on their knowledge of both fields. The other categories mentioned above, such as government, professional body and others can play a role as a facilitator, collaborator and supporter.

2.4.2 Collaboration between education and industry in Taiwan

The Taiwanese government has acknowledged the importance of collaboration between education and industry: undoubtedly, the Taiwanese government has made an effort to promote collaborative projects to bridge the gap between education and industry (Chen 2011). There are two types of collaboration between education and industry in Taiwan. One is a co-operation between education and industry, which is called 'co-operative education' (MOE 2012:40) and the other is a variety of connections between education and industry, which is translated as 'university and industrial-business liaison system' (Lin et al. 2014:41). Some literature just uses them both as interchangeable terms. However, Zhou (2013) highlights that the ineffectiveness of collaboration is due to government's ineffective approach and lack of incentives for both education and industry.

The first relevant legislation regarding co-operative education established in Taiwan was in 1954 (Cheng 2010), but the relevant legislation for protecting learners' rights at the workplace just came through in 2012 (Lin et al. 2014). According to my previous auto-ethnographic experience as a lecturer in Taiwan, learners on work placements have received very little support and limited guidance from the education and industry sector. In other words, learners' rights when at the workplace have been long ignored, with no protection whatsoever.

There are a number of programmes established for learners to learn in the workplace. To begin with the FE sector, there are three types of co-operative education, which are: rotatory, stepped and work placement (MOE 2012). Rotatory co-operative education was the most common mode of study in the FE sector, especially in the 1980s. This type of study is that learners are, for example, three months studying in an institution and three months working at a workplace in turns. The wage was lower than the national minimum wage. According to an interview[16] with one of the officers in the Council of Labour Affairs of Taiwan, the government was actually aware of the fact that the beauty learners undertaking rotary co-operative education were exploited by the beauty industry and it led to a short career cycle in the industry. Surprisingly, the government has undertaken little action towards the issue.

The second type of stepped co-operative education is that the first two years' learning is in the education establishment and the final year of FE will be carried out at a workplace. Learners are required to come back to vocational high school not less than 6 days per semester (MOE 2012).

The third type of co-operative education is work placement. The work placement is taken place mainly in summer and/or winter holiday. In HE, Academia-Industry Collaboration is the most common scheme, rather than FE type of co-operative education as the distinction between them is that in HE, the collaboration focuses on research & development and nurturing talents more (Lin et al. 2014). In order to show their determination, Taiwanese government has provided various funding projects to be implementing into the HE curriculum such as The Last Mile, Team Teaching and so forth. These funding projects will be analysed in Section 5.3.1.2.

[16] The interview with one of the senior government officers in the Council of Labour Affairs of Taiwan was undertaken by the researcher.

Lin et al. (2014) conclude that the incoherence and inconsistency in policy, funding and manpower affects the implementation of collaboration policy. Moreover, insufficient policy implementation leads to ineffectiveness of education and industry collaboration. The result from the Lin et al. report shows that work placement is the most effective method for learners to familiarise with industry. It appears that industry is the answer and the only answer for fixing the failure of policy, but it is still questionable whether the industrial instructor is trained how to teach and the scope of teaching content will be enough for learners to prepare their competence not only for their organisation, but also for other relevant industries.

According to the implementation measure MOE issued in 2004, again, tutors are required to visit learners at the workplace to check on their accommodation and observe their learning environment (MOE 2012:56). From the implementation measure, there is no assessment involved during the visit. Moreover, there is no standard established between education and industry or between industries: in other words, the quality of learning would be difficult to assured.

According to an evaluation report of HE work placements, Lin et al. (2008) point out that there are a lot of problems and challenges in the work placement scheme in Taiwan. The main problems could be summarised as due to the ineffective communication. The issues occur not only to both sectors of education and industry, but also to learners. It was found that there is no counterpart and dedicated agency involved between both sectors. This can cause misunderstanding and confusion between education, industry and learners.

Additionally, there was a four-month service learning program integrated into specialist subjects, which was based on the concept of developing professional knowledge, self-development and interaction with others, especially considering the beauty industry is a service industry (Yan-Xing 2011). Yan-Xing concluded that the benefit of this type of learning programme is to develop professional

ethics and a caring attitude through approaching people based on the value of service and furthermore, to put their specialist subject into practice.

2.4.3 Work-Based Learning (WBL) in the UK

In the UK, there are various forms of learning in the workplace, such as work placements, Apprenticeships, sandwich programmes and structured or unstructured work experiences. The earliest form and most common type is Apprenticeship, especially in FE. The Apprenticeship has a rather long history in the UK and the style of apprenticeship may be derived from the UK in the nineteenth century (Ryan & Unwin 2001), but it has again been promoted in the vocational education in recent years due to the high unemployment rate in the UK.

The UK government is determined to bring the young back to study and work. The Modern Apprenticeship was launched in 1994 for nurturing intermediate level of skills (Ryan & Unwin 2001), because at the time the shortage of intermediate skills was identified. The Skills Funding Agency has redefined the apprenticeship structure for HE in 2015, with new levels of Higher apprenticeship (levels 6-7) and a Degree apprenticeship (levels 6-7) to be available, in addition to the existing lower level of Intermediate apprenticeship (level 2), Advanced apprenticeship (level 3), Higher apprenticeship (levels 4-5) (Department for Business Innovation & Skills 2015; National Apprenticeship Service 2015:2).

The concept of 'Work-Based Learning (WBL)' is derived from the idea of education and industry collaboration. WBL is strongly recommended to be implemented into Vocational Education and Training as a compulsory component (Evans 2014), as it is a pro-active learning directed by learners' reflective process around the actions and problem-solving activities within a real working setting. The attention is to connect the classroom to the workplace of the real world (Wilhelm et al. 2002). WBL could be carried out as paid or

volunteer work, which contains various meanings of learning that could be for/at/through work (Gray 2001).

The WBL module is heavily credited throughout the HVET degree course (see Appendix B). It can also be assessed in different forms as long as the key traits, such as ability and knowledge within the subject domain could be measured. In other words, learners are encouraged to work closely with industry at all times in their learning. With the make-up programme, due to the nature of the profession, it has to be carried out in a different approach as the make-up working environment is very different from beauty therapy. However, owing to the lack of clarity, some institutions have mistaken work placement and sandwich programmes as WBL studies (QAA 2006). More importantly, acquisition of meta-competence – learning to learn - is the key outcome of all (Raelin 1997).

The difference between WBL and other learning programmes in workplace is that WBL is considered more centralised around the agreement between three key stakeholders (individual, employer and institution) compared to work placement or structured work experience, which are more focused on the student (QAA 2006; Brennan & Little 1996). The role of students in the WBL is as employees whose learning is taking place at the workplace, closely linked to an academic study programme. Correspondingly, learners will have a regular tutorial and supervision meeting with their tutor (Gray 2001:4). From the personal opinion of the researcher, WBL is an improved version of work placement, which involves the key stakeholders in the programme.

There are some arguments regarding whether WBL is learning *at work*, *for work, through work or from work*. Lester & Costley (2010) argue that WBL means just learning that is based in or on work, while HE's WBL is considered as learning for work, comprising learning at work and/or through work (Brennan & Little 1996; University of Birmingham 2009; Gray 2001). The learning through training programmes are closely linked to real occurrences at

the workplace. ETF (2014:3) emphasise that "Work-based learning refers to learning that occurs when people do real work. This work can be paid or unpaid, but it must be real work that leads to the production of real goods and services." Lester & Costley consider that WBL should highlight developing self-capability rather than merely upgrading skills.

Raelin (1997:564) distinguished the difference between WBL and classroom-based learning as the need to integrate theory with practice. He claimed that theory may be acquired after the practice rather than before experience. Theory is a conceptualised form of knowledge: hence, it requires a test in experimenting in the mode of practice. There is a reflection process through their real-time experience and from the process of knowledge transformation. This knowledge transformation process is important for learners to verify what is learned and what actually is in the real world practice.

In order to measure the effectiveness of learning in the workplace, assessment at the workplace is an essential criterion to any type of learning in the workplace, especially the reliability, validity and authenticity of assessment methods. It is important to measure the end product and the process of the development (Gray 2001:7). In the beauty sector, FE learners seem to be only required to record the hours of work experience and HE learners may be requested to submit written reports or a portfolio at the end of the work placement or work experience. The reliability, validity and authenticity could be questioned and its effectiveness could be inconclusive.

Furness & Gilligan (2004:467) claim that the assessment will be taken place against the National Occupational Standards (NOS) at workplace. Due to a fact that NOS is only developed up to level 4 for some practices in the beauty sector (HABIA 2006); therefore, it would not allow assessment to take place on placement fully.

There is a doubt in competence-based assessment as its rigidness of pass and fail has been criticised. Rowe (1995:14) claimed that people are either competent or not competent, which is measured according to threshold standard. Robotham & Jubb (1996:28) argued that threshold standards tend to be set at the minimum requirements, which is not associated with high performance. To a higher level of competence, it may not be sufficient to judge individuals 'competent' or 'not yet competent'. If candidate could be competent in A, but not yet competent in B, would an individual be considered 'competent' or 'not yet competent'? Dreyfus and Dreyfus' model (discussed further in Section 3.3) gives a scale of competences that distinguishes between competence development levels (Benner 1982; Lester 2005a; Lester 2005b; Honken 2013; Dreyfus 2004; Raelin 1997; Knight 2002; Curtis 2004; Lester 2001a; Shanteau 1992; Gordon 2008) and may be appropriate for different levels of benchmark. Thus, the Dreyfuss model might ease the dichotomy argument.

At FE level, candidates tend to be given feedback on their assessment performance and advised on the future improvement needed. At HE level, feedback is more infrequent and is not primarily based on practical performance. Perhaps, at HE level, apart from the output, not only could candidates be encouraged to evaluate and reflect on their own performance within the assessment process, but also identify the issues for improvement and indicate their own direction for development.

2.5 Competence identification for beauty professionals

Competence is built up through either formal education or experience (Robotham and Jubb 1996:27). From all the issues highlighted in Chapter 1, it has led to another deficiency, which is identification of competence. There are two possibilities to explain the gap that has occurred between education and industry: the competence identification is incomplete or the competences standard has not been agreed between education and industry. However, there

is, so far, very little research to prove what the competences being implemented into beauty related programmes of VET in Taiwan are and whether they are appropriate.

Tien et al. (2001:2) stated that Taiwan has also launched a very skill-based competence standards since 1970s. In that case, there should be some evidences to be traced, but no wider indication of their existence was found. From Tien et al.'s statement, the Taiwanese government seemed to develop a generic competence standard to fit all occupations as it was developed by a research group undertaking the analysis based on five selected occupations (no indication of which five occupations). The green highlighting in Figure 2-14 is to show ~~that~~ the competence standards Tien et.al decide~~d~~d to adopt in their research. Certainly, the relevant stakeholders were consulted according to the authors, but no further information is provided and explained. However, England's Occupational standards have been updated since the 2001 publication of this research and the terminology of 'element of titles' and 'range statements' are no longer used.

Occupational standards in England	Skill standards in U. S.	Competence standards in Australia	Competence standards of this research
units: sets of occupational standards	**critical work functions:** the major responsibilities involved in an occupation	**unit of competence:** collections of competence standards	**job items:** tasks of jobs
element of titles: What someone can achieve in output terms.	**key activities:** the duties and tasks involved in carrying out a critical work function	**element of competence:** Main subdivisions of the unit.	**skill items:** Basic operations involved in job items
performance criteria: What has to be demonstrated to show competence.	**performance indicators:** information on how to determine someone in performing each key activity competently.	**performance criteria:** Benchmark for evaluating competence.	**skill standards:** Basic requirements to finish a skill item.
range statements: Define the instances in which evidence of competence is required.		**range of variables :** constraints, equipment, facilities, general environment.	
	occupational and technical knowledge and skills: skills unique to a specific concentration of work within an industry	**evidence guide:** information for assessors (such as the knowledge and skill that underpin the competency, and how to assess the competency)	**related knowledge:** Knowledge needed to finish skill standards.
	academic and employability skills: skills and knowledge common across all occupations.		**generic competence:** (General competence to be developed at the second stage of this research).

Figure 2-14: Competence frameworks in different countries (Tien et al. 2001)

Lin & Chen (2014) claim that Taiwan has launched Occupational Competency Standards (OCS) since 2008. After an investigation, it was found that there is no further information regarding the content of OCS. The source of Figure 2-15 was found at the official website of Workforce Development Agency, in Taiwan, but the other important references Lin & Chen provided cannot be accessed. More importantly, there is a lack of information regarding where this OCS developed from and no further evidence addressing how OCS could be applied to guide learning outcomes and assessment criteria. Sixteen sectors to which it could be applied are listed on the Workforce Development Agency website, not including beauty. Thus, when Lin & Chen (2014) discuss OCS in Cosmetology & Hairdressing, the argument seems weak and the evidence appears insufficient.

Item	Description
Occupational Competency Standard (OCS) Items	The OCS items are in accordance with the "Standard Industrial Classification of the Republic of China" promulgated by the Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan, R.O.C. (Taiwan), or names of occupations that may be used in the next three to five years.
Job Description	The overall description of the occupation or job content, including the primary work contents and important work output performance.
Entry Level	Criteria for taking up a post in the occupation or job or necessary education, work experience, and competency.
Work Tasks	In accordance with the occupation (job category) or work objectives, it is sub-divided by layer into main responsibilities, work tasks, and work activity items. The layering depends on the complexity of work.
Behavioral Indicators	The standard used to evaluate whether or not employees have successfully completed work tasks. The situation in which the tasks fall under and the required behaviors that should be specified.
Competency Classes	The level of judgment competency based on the work takes and corresponding behavioral indicators.
Work Output	Refers to the primary key work output for a particular job position, including the process and the final key output item.
Competency Content	• Knowledge: Refers to the knowledge of principles and facts that can be applied in the field when carrying out a specific task. • Technique: Refers to cognitive competency or technical and operational competency that are helpful when carrying out a specific task. • Attitude: Refers to the attitude that affects performance when carrying out a specific task. * Note: Competency content items relating to qualities are not included in the OCS, as they are less likely to be changed through education training. It is recommended that corporations evaluate accordingly when recruiting and promoting employees.

Figure 2-15: The Occupational Competency Standards OCS Items (Lin & Chen 2014:94) **(Source is confirmed from Workforce Development Agency: Retrieved from http://icap.evta.gov.tw/Knowledge/knowledge_introduction.aspx)**

From both figures mentioned above, it can be seen that there is no similarity or any relation to one another. It is not clear which one of them is the competence standard Taiwan has actually adopted as the information is insufficient.

Therefore, it could be asserted that there is lack of competence standard developed and implemented in Taiwan.

In addition to education, another approach of building competence is through working experience. As such, in order to bridge the gap, between academia and industry, a co-operative scheme was promoted to ensure a seamless transition from education to industry (MOE 2015). If there is not an agreed competence standard and clear levels of standards between education and industry, it would be difficult to develop competence through working experience.

Some studies investigated the performance of beauty professionals. The issues, shortcomings and limitations in beauty practice has been highlighted (Westmore 2001; Karaev 1992). Additionally, beauty practitioners' competence has been questioned due to inadequate training and the lack of professional ethics in general (Adams 2002; Hayt 2002; Brody et al. 2003). In Taiwan, many controversial practices have caused damage to customers because of beauty practitioners' illegal practices or incompetent performance (Uho 2013; Taiwan Power News 2014), which can, perhaps, relate to ethical issues and somewhat to individuals' attributes.

Additionally, Karaev (1992) implied that the wide range of beauty treatment services from non-invasive to invasive ones with the aid to advanced devices may require from beauty practitioners a breadth and depth of specialist knowledge and skills. Although beauty related programs have been upgraded to higher vocational level in Taiwan, beauty practitioners' performance still seems to be criticized as inadequate (Liu 2013; Uho 2013). It can be argued that competence standards for occupations may not have been sufficiently identified and established in Taiwan.

The competence standards and curriculum in Taiwan were criticised as being too skill-oriented (Tien et al. 2001; Huang 2003; Guan & Lu 2012). If it overly focuses on skills, the other elements would be neglected, as Guan & Lu

specified. It cannot be certain whether Taiwan has developed competency standards as Tien et al. (2001) stated that they may not practically exist as they are not yet fully developed. Neither has the content of competence standards been addressed, nor the components of skill, knowledge and generic competence in this competence standards been explained in their publication. Xu (1996) and Huang (2003) have respectively looked into beauticians' and salon managers' competences in Taiwan.

Xu (1996) is probably the first person in Taiwan to have an investigation into beautician's competences (equivalent to the level of FE) for her Master dissertation. She listed details of competence that are required for the job: these were criticised as have too much details on skills by Huang (2003). Xu classified beautician's competences in six categories: namely physiology, hygiene and safety, skin care, make-up and styling, consultation and management, and work ethic. The 6 categories are also sub-divided into 23 items, within which there are 103 abilities. Xu highlighted the need for establishing tailored regulations for the beauty sector to monitor the practice more effectively and to raise the industrial standard.

Huang (2003) undertook a PhD study focusing on the professional competences for both Hair salon and Beauty salon managers. She adopted the model from Occupational Competencies Analysis Profiles (OCAPs), which is established for FE level in the USA: therefore, it is not surprising that she stated very detailed duties and tasks. She identified 8 major duties: 'professional cosmetic beauty management', 'general affairs dealing', 'after-service management', 'in-service education and training', 'general administration', 'marketing', 'personnel managing', 'job-site service operation management'; and 85 tasks for a managerial role in a beauty salon (p4). Also, a managerial role is required to obtain 127 professional competences which include 39 items of knowledge, 60 items of practices and 29 items of attitude (p5).

Huang suggested that competence at HE could be developed and divided into basic (for two-year junior-college level), advanced (for two-year senior-college level) and higher level (for four-year college level), according to the needs for work and the demands from different levels of learners. However, according to Taiwan's qualification structure, two-year senior-college level and four-year college level are at the same degree level. Furthermore, two-year senior-college level of graduates may equip more industrial experiences than a four-year programme graduates. Therefore, Huang's suggestion does not sound logical.

In this case, FE graduates were left out without options, but progress to HVET. However, both of their studies focus on quite detailed competences, specifically on skills required for the job either at the lower level as practitioners or on the managerial role. Additionally, Yukl A. et al. (1979) have measured the leadership behaviour for salon manager's performance and affirmed that leadership could affect the effectiveness of management and business specifically for a beauty salon manager, which is completely different to Huang's thesis, that does not highlight leadership behaviour.

Additionally, Qiu et al. (2009) differentiate competence for Spa beauty curriculum design into five elements and features: motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge and skill. According to the result of their survey from 7 industrial experts, the most important three competences for the categories below are listed.

1) The importance of competence: theoretical written test on essential oil, consultation skill, evaluate other professional knowledge
2) Knowledge: theoretical knowledge of essential oil, skin physiology and human anatomy and physiology
3) Skills: massage techniques, psychological and emotional consultation, applications of alternative therapies
4) Attitude: dedication of service, self-emotional management, passion for work

5) Behaviour: diverse learning, team work, achieve customer satisfaction
6) Core competence: emotional management, ability to resist pressure, active learning

Although the six categories do not match five elements and features of competence, the result can be seen that consultation skill and emotional management are highlighted. However, although the modules or learning targets listed in the paper are mapped against the competence identified, quite a few competences identified above, such as emotional management, active learning and so forth, are overlooked.

From the beauty textbooks (Armstrong et al. 2006; Taylor 2009a; Goldsbro & White 2009; Stafford 2009; Braisdell & Lenard 2011) of the UK for beauty sectors, professional presentation, communication skill, customer service, caring, responsive, team working, positive attitude and work ethics and so forth are the competences required for performing practical work as a beauty therapist.

Work ethics are embedded into a code of practice established by professional bodies in order to govern professional behaviour in their practice. However, professional ethics should be beyond a code of practice. As Nash (1988) and Lester (2007) stated that ethics are concerned with morality, which enables individuals to govern themselves in their practice.

In the UK, competence standards are widely accepted in FE, but not in HE. Hager (1993) considered that HE could have mistaken competence standards as a narrowed mechanical approach. He has clarified that competence standards could be used not only to specify learning outcome, but also justify the approach.

Huang (2003) states that identification of the required competence for beauty practices not only could clarify the duties, allocate the job roles effectively, be implemented into daily tasks and assess the effectiveness of the ability, but also

can be a norm for Higher Education curriculum design to develop the competence required for industry. Moreover, it may provide guidance for beauty professionals to develop their vocation as a long-term career.

2.6 Summary of Chapter 2

The beauty industry is multifaceted and vibrant, making its turnover, size and range difficult to define. Participation in this industry could be at low skill level as well as high professional status levels. Such a wide spectrum means that the industry's potential resides in the quality of its beauty professionals.

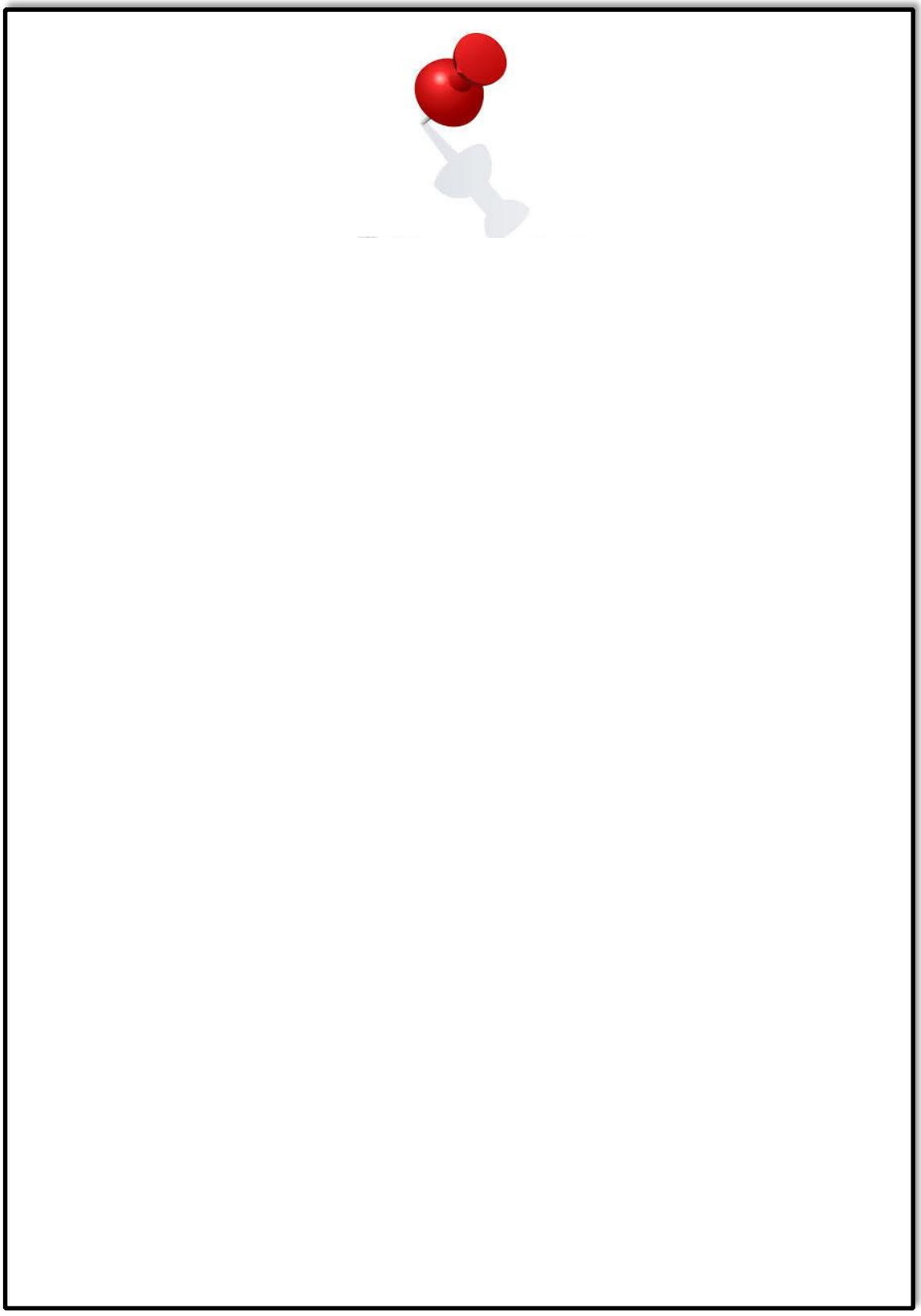
The reason for raising the visibility of beauty practitioners and their practices is because they are gradually losing their identity due to the changes in the competitive market. The low entrance requirement and low cost to set up a business allows a lot of people who are lack of academic ability, in long-term unemployment, seeking for second career path, and foreign spouses to enter the profession without sufficient knowledge and skills. The Taiwanese government has funded a lot of training courses for obtaining National Occupational License in order to for them to gain an employment or be self-employed. Without a proper registration system, the government would not be able to regulate and monitor their practices, which is a hidden risk in practice. Thus, it is important to raise the entry barrier up to a professional level and establish their position in this competitive market nationally and internationally.

Improving the quality of VET is vital for raising the competitiveness internationally (Hong & Huang 2003). The beauty industry, in particular, has to respond to market needs simultaneously or even to create desires. With a fast changing industry like the beauty industry, the education sector also needs a long-term vision to prepare talents and their competences ahead or even to lead a future demand for talents. Additionally, the ability of individuals to identify their own learning needs and develop their ability to learn through their

professional development to focus on training in more advanced techniques is more important.

Beauty practice requires actuation by practitioners and professionals. The industry's potential is contained in the variety of practitioner competence levels, interpreting beauty using a variety of approaches, resulting in different outcomes. Beauty professionals work towards both therapeutic practice and the design of scenarios for distinctive treatment experiences. The former is inherently scientific, the latter creative. The potential of such a wide spectrum of practice has clearly been overlooked: only superficial aspects of the industry have hitherto been perceived. It appears rather difficult to identify areas of competence, as each beauty practitioner could be required to perform a variety of services across the industry's wide spectrum.

The UK's and Taiwan's VET structures have been outlined. The only similarity is that credential inflation is made inevitable by high HE enrolment rates and both countries' schemes of widening participation. The differences include educational structures, recruitment processes and policies. The difference could also be seen from the collaborative strategies between education and industry. In Taiwan, all the relevant stakeholders are working apart and the connotation of collaboration was misunderstood. In the UK, learners were centred in the collaborative project and the learning is from all relevant stakeholders in this regard. These similarities and differences will be further discussed in Chapter 6 using primary data.



Chapter 3: Relevant Theories

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the theories underlying the thesis' argument, which concerns the importance of establishing standards of competence and applying them from formal education into life-long learning. The subject of standards of competence is probably the most familiar element of a wide-ranging debate regarding vocational education and professional development. Ensuring that an individual is able to obtain, retain and change jobs, or even to become self-employed, is after all VET's primary purpose and its utility. As well as competence, educational levels are closely related to professional development.

3.2 Standards of competence

Theories of competence have been widely associated with a range of disciplines and approaches. For example, theories of competence are applied to assessment methods (McMullan et al. 2003; Van Der Vleuten 1996), developed into models such as Cheetham et al. (1996) or associated with professions such as nursing, physiotherapy, medicine, engineering and so on. It has become a benchmark set for assessing performance. Each professional field has its interpretation of competence to fit its needs.

The educational sector regards knowledge of the required competences as an important means of preparing graduates for employment. Nevertheless, graduates must themselves be aware of the skills needed to meet industrial requirements. The industrial sector should also be able to identify what abilities it actually requires. It is this awareness that the present study seeks to raise. The current nurturing system seems to rely overly on VET and industrial collaboration in order to fill skills shortages or rejuvenate the economy.

Practitioners and professionals must be able not only to recognise their competences but to identify their learning needs. The latter are normally

overlooked. Competence theory as applied to the beauty sector is still very limited, as sector-specific competence levels are not specified clearly enough. The competence standards recognised as National Occupation Standards (NOS) are broken down into units. The underpinning knowledge and performance criteria embedded in the units are fragmentary and have a specialist focus. As Chapter 2 explains, beauty practice is mainly task-oriented, consisting of units of treatment service. Its professional development could thus consist of demonstrating competence in the handling of complex and unfamiliar situations rather than attaining the ability to deliver treatment services. This may, however, not be observable, much less assessable, in educational environments.

3.2.1 Competence vs Competency

These closely related concepts are regarded as a foundation of professional development and a useful benchmark for employment and skill assessment (Rowe 1995; Sultana 2009). They are also widely used in a range of disciplines including midwifery (Butler 2001), nursing (Chen 2010), engineering (Munch & Jakobsen 2005; Mansfield 1996), physiotherapy (O'Shaughnessy & Tilki 2007), industrial design (Yang et al. 2005), the medical profession (Talbot 2004), education and professional development (Lester 1995; Lester 2014a) and career guidelines (Sultana 2009).

The 7th edition of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Wehmeier 2005) defines the two terms 'competence' and 'competency' interchangeably, with the meaning of "a skill that you need in a particular job or for a particular task". Most authors use the terms synonymously. In addition, neither Chinese nor any of its dialects distinguishes between 'competence' and 'competency'. Many studies use them interchangeably to refer to the level of ability that enables an individual to perform a task or fulfil a duty or role to the required standard (Hager & Gonczi 1996; Xu 1996; Huang 2003). The differences in interpretation

of this concept could cause confusion due to the variety of definitions and usages.

Ashworth and Saxton (1990:6) and Rowe (1995:12) argue that the difference between the two should be clarified. They argue that 'competence' indicates the performance of a particular skill as a component in the competency spectrum, while 'competency' refers to the behaviour underlying that performance. This suggests a wide range of implicitly soft attributes that could develop the particular competence to its maximum potential (Boyatzis 1982; Rowe 1995; Hoffmann 1999; McMullan et al. 2003; Le Deist & Winterton 2005; Azemikhah 2006; Boyatzis 2008; Sultana 2009). In other words, competence reflects the end product and competency determines the quality of the product. In short, competence indicates 'what people can do' rather than what they are like or what they know (Foschi 2000:22; Mansfield 2005). Lester (2014a:39) refers to competence as "a social, external, activity- or outcome-based" outlook, which is reflected in UK's development of the NOS. Eraut (1998:129) defines competence as "being able to perform the tasks and roles required to the expected standard". Eraut's definition is the description most relevant to this study, as it could be potentially applied to any stage of a career.

Whereas, competency denotes 'how they do it' (Rowe 1995:12). Rowe's definition entails that 'competency' implies competence, which in turn is a manifestation of competency. In reality, they might not be separable, but they could be distinguished at various levels of performance. Lester (2014a:39) considers competency as "an individual, internal, attributes-based" dimension. Therefore, competency can be considered as a set of abilities – skills, knowledge and attributes – that enable the person to be competent. However, Hermann and Kenyon (1987:1) argue that a competency is "a performance capability needed by workers in a specified occupational area... A competency does not imply perfection: it implies performance at a stated level." Competency seems to be a common term in the US, as Competency-Based

Education (CBE) has been widely implemented in the US: from Nodine's (2016) standpoint, CBE programmes appear to employ an outcome-based approach. From this discussion above, it can be seen that the definition and connotation between competence and competency seem not to be distinguished clearly.

In the context of this study, the aspects focused on are those that allow individuals to achieve the required tasks effectively and competently, so as to be able to fulfil the role regardless of which stage they are at. This means that the requirements for each stage of competence will differ. Beauty practitioners could be required to take a variety of actions according to situation and client.

The derivative term 'core competence' differs from 'competence' in that it is used to refer to a key performance driver for competitive advantage (Le Deist & Winterton 2005:27). The term 'core competence' is usually used to describe a given organisation level's uniqueness and strength (Hoffmann 1999; Yang et al. 2005) rather than in relation to an individual. Conversely, Walsh & Linton (2001) and Yang et al. (2006) argue the importance of identification of core competences at the individual level. The core competence framework is therefore often used for recruitment, performance management, learning and development and career development (UK Ministry of Justice 2008) at both organisational and individual levels, as Hoffmann argues. That is to say that the concept of the core competence could be extracted into a purposeful vision for professional development and expanded into the various levels of competence.

Competence is naturally linked to performance. Ashworth & Saxton (1990:10) cited The Further Education Staff College's *Guide to work-based learning terms* (1989) that:

> *"…competence is a quality possessed by an individual as a result of learning. A performance is the expression or demonstration of that competence in some particular circumstance…"*

Ashworth & Saxton (1990) argue that, while competence and performance should be distinguished, they are associated in that competence can be

demonstrated by the performance of a job, role or task within the occupational setting. That is to say, more precisely, some aspects of competence can be inferred from observable performance routines (Hager 1993; Van Der Vleuten 1996; McMullan et al. 2003), while the execution of different jobs, roles or tasks can exhibit a variety of competence levels (Hager believes that people with similar levels do not necessarily display the same behaviours).

Robotham and Jubb (1996) see competences as being job-related and used to measure performance. The argument is that it may be possible to construct levels of competence, but performance levels are difficult to judge. According to Hager (1993), superior performance indicates practitioner competence, but the reverse is not necessarily true. Ashworth and Saxton (1990) explain using the example of a minor performance mistake, one that does not provide enough grounds to censure competence, but is evidence of resilience.

The associated concepts of elements of competence and performance criteria are embedded as measurement mechanisms into the NOS, the UK's competence standard. This requires various assessment methods to verify performance levels based on levels of competence. It follows that the latter ground the former, as competence can drive performance, but not vice versa. Elements of competence are discussed in the following section.

3.2.2 Elements of competence

Ashworth & Saxton (1990:7), cited Silver's *Intentions and Outcomes* (1988), that " 'Competence' was being developed as an umbrella concept to incorporate skills and attitudes, knowledge and experience." Some studies define competence as capability or ability, whether as a single element or as a collective term (Lester 2014:40), while others use various elements such as knowledge, skills, abilities, characteristics, attitudes and attributes to exemplify competences (Hager 1993; Hager & Gonczi 1996; Munch & Jakobsen 2005). Xu's (1996) and Huang's (2003) studies of competence, the Workforce

Development Agency's Occupational Competency Standards (2014) and Van der Klink et al. (2007) all consider the term competence to connote knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Various attempts have been made to identify the elements of competence. Yang et al. (2005) see it as composed of two categories. One is general competence, which is in turn subdivided into generic attributes; specific skills; and knowledge and its integration. The other group is the skillset required, which could be for the various stages of the treatment service process. The authors find that the elements of competence vary, but the concept is fairly homogenous.

Gonczi et al. (1990:4) see the concept as composed of three elements: attributes, performance and standards. They further explain that attributes including knowledge, skills and attitudes underpin competence, an observation similar to Hoffmann (1999). Gonczi et al. also suggest that performance is measured according to set standards, and that the way of establishing these is to first analyse existing information regarding professional tasks. Therefore, this shows that the performance of competences should be measured according to set standards, at appropriate levels.

Competences should be measurable (Robotham & Jubb 1996:27; Rowe 1995:14). Rowe (1995) emphasises that competence must be observable and assessable. He also claims that it can only be measured as either 'competent' or 'not yet competent'. In NVQs, this competent/ not yet competent grading is used: because failure may adversely affect fragile learners, this type of competence-based assessment qualifications has been transferred to the arena of work-based learning. The current college-based Vocationally Recognised Qualifications (VRQs) use pass grading criteria (pass, merit and distinction) to measure performance. A pass (as opposed to merit or distinction) in the majority of units would indicate a lower level of competence. However, it is commonly held that employers prefer competence-based NVQs rather than

VRQs.[17] Policymakers and researchers sometimes consider the issue from the educational perspective rather than taking industrial realities into account.

The complexity of tasks and responsibilities across the spectrum of professions, together with the variety of stakeholder expectations, demands the measurement of competence by individual task. Any given competence could be vital to one profession but irrelevant to another. The elements discussed in the present work are therefore relevant to beauty-related industries.

This study regards knowledge, skills and attributes as the elements of competence for beauty professionals. To some extent the first two reflect the ability to perform tasks, while the role of attributes in enhancing knowledge and skills is acknowledged. 'Attributes' is a term that covers the component elements of attitudes and characteristics.

3.2.2.1 Knowledge

The term 'knowledge' refers to an individual's intellectual capacity that involves a process of accessing, comprehending, translating and transferring information and experimenting data. Clark (2001:189) lists four types of knowledge: 'know-what', 'know-why', 'know-how' and 'know-who'. Since competence is seen as being very much job-related, and since the beauty sector is classified as a practical one, it would be more productive to discuss the knowledge entailed in task performance rather than the theoretical typology of knowledge. Wilfried Kruse introduces the term 'work process knowledge', which is that knowledge that serves as a guide to practical work (Rauner 2007). The present study discusses this form of knowledge both because it is valuable for task performance and because it can constantly be generated by practice. Work

[17] According to the minutes of meeting of the Leicester College, the feedback from work-based learning team of lecturers and assessors.

process knowledge requires the integration of theoretical and practical knowledge (Rauner 2005).

Eraut (1994:42) distinguishes between technical and practical knowledge: the former can be codified, but the latter can only be articulated through practice. He also claims (1994:102) that the tacit nature of practical knowledge poses problems when attempting to explain it. He sees its value as outweighing its technical counterpart, and points out that, without the reflection process, practitioners may not even recognise it.

Nevertheless, Thomson et al. (2009:53) strongly agree with Lynn's *Public management as art, science, and profession*, published in 1996, that practical knowledge should not only be built on experience, but should also explicitly incorporate analytical understanding. Lower educational levels may have made neglect of technical knowledge acceptable in the past, but nowadays, experts should be prepared to express their concepts and ideas and explain their expertise rationally, logically and scientifically. For example, they should be able to explain the posture and angle necessary to hold a make-up brush in mechanical terms. Rust (2004:79) argues that the concept of tacit knowledge can be explicitly articulated to facilitate its adoption, but that the use of such knowledge to acquire more by responding to specific situations should be a new branch of knowledge in its own right.

Knowledge is acquired from formal education and work experience (Crouch 2005:96). The concept of knowledge seems to be interpreted rather narrowly by the beauty industry, where the term tends to refer quite narrowly to subject-related specialist knowledge. Subject knowledge can also be divided into theoretical and practical branches, the latter tending to refer to the principles and procedures used to execute a task. The difference between levels is the ability to "demonstrate their knowledge understanding of the concepts and principles underlying their studies or areas of interest" (Ofqual 2011:18). More

importantly, the ability to apply knowledge in practice and the capability to update and develop knowledge are to some extent underplayed.

3.2.2.2 Skills

Skills are at the heart of the competence that equips individuals, especially for skill-based occupations. Individual skills are the predominant element in employability (Moreau & Leathwood 2006:307). Skills shortages associated with the labour market are considered the central barrier to national productivity and economic development (Payne 2000; Campbell et al. 1999). Skill levels and economic performance, job growth, earning power and competitiveness appear to be closely associated as indicators of the balance of supply and demand (Payne 2000; Campbell et al. 1999). In other words, vocational education should be able to prepare various skillsets, not only to meet a variety of demands but also to develop abilities to innovate or even create demand. In a fast-changing economy, industry would expect graduates to bring a new fresh set of skills rather than merely to perform by routine.

The Workforce Development Agency, Ministry of Labour, in Taiwan (2014) defines skills, including hard (i.e. technical) and soft (e.g. personal and social) skills, as operational competence that can help perform required tasks. Hard skills can vary by type of occupation and by the level and complexity of the work involved. For example, the invasive beauty treatment of epilation involves the insertion of a needle that requires a steady hand and the correct insertion point if it is not to burn the client and cause them pain. Soft skills, also known as generic skills, are more complicated: they contain various elements such as key skills, people-related skills and cognitive skills (Curtis 2004:8). There is a measure of overlap and correspondence between soft skills and attributes. Some attributes such as leadership qualities can also be developed. The difference is that developing soft skills requires tactics: while attributes manifest innate qualities. It is debatable whether creativity can be nurtured. It may indeed require some innate quality, but higher levels of creativity also demand

more advanced skills of connecting ideas and experiences. Key skills include literacy, numeracy and IT.

Skills do not only indicate technical or practical accomplishments acquired through vocational education and training. Their scope should also include developing the ability to 'learn how to learn' as a lifelong activity (Brown, Green and Lauder 2001). Skills can therefore be classified as general and specific, whether in academic or work settings. General skills are the cross-disciplinary ones learned in academic settings: these are transferable between work settings. Specific skills can be classified as discipline- and profession-specific (Bennett et al. 2000). Current HVET, however, still focuses on imparting knowledge and skills rather than developing the ability to 'learn how to learn'. This enables self-generated acquisition of advanced knowledge and skills with which to further professional development.

3.2.2.3 Attributes

Attributes are considered to be a type of 'soft' personal skill. The distinction between personal attributes and personal skills is unclear: however, they are both becoming more important, for employment at an organisational level and for individual career development (Dench 1997). The term 'attributes' tends to be used when determining an individual's employability and to choose between interview candidates whose qualifications, experience and levels of expertise are similar. Individuals with different attributes tend to adopt different approaches (Lin 2006). Attributes and attitudes are both regarded as important indications of the motivation to learn (Noe 1986).

Whether attributes can be trained, nurtured and developed is subject to debate. Abdolmohammadi and Shanteau (1992) maintain that some attributes such as creativity and self-confidence may be unteachable. Long et al. (2011) identify conscientiousness, humility and open-mindedness as the skills least amenable to being taught. Although some attributes may be considered as inborn

qualities, some could still be developed through education (Dench 1997:191). However, this present study argues that even though they might not be taught, learners could still imbibe some of their values through training activities.

The term 'attitudes' tends to be used to refer to behaviours expressive of personal preferences. Mantle-Bromley (1995) sees the importance of attitudes as predicting and influencing behaviour. In the context of work, attitude involves three interconnected aspects: "job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment" (George & Jones 1997: 398). Attributes specify individuals' beliefs and are used to explain their behaviours (Hewstone 2005). A number of studies attempt to identify attributes for particular professions or levels of expertise. Some attributes at least exhibit patterns associated with expertise and indicate individuals who have the capacity to attain it (Abdolmohammadi & Shanteau 1992). Some studies, such as those by Huang (2003) and Xu (1996), replace the term with 'attitudes'. The present study considers attitudes as a subset of attributes, and that broader scope has therefore led to the term's adoption here. Rowe (1995:16) cites the dictionary definition of attributes as a "quality ascribed to anything or anyone. Characteristic quality". Personal qualities and competences are the most important criteria in employability (McQuaid & Lindsay 2005).

While some consider attributes as personal qualities, Hoffmann (1999:277), Down et al. (1999) and Hager and Gonczi (1996) broaden the concept's scope, regarding them as features of competence also embracing knowledge, skills and attitudes. Knowledge, skills and attributes are thus the three elements examined by this study. The correspondence between each of those elements' key features and its matching level of expertise must also be identified.

Attributes usually vary between positions and professions. Abdolmohammadi and Shanteau (1992) identify the attributes of expert auditors, finding some such as decisiveness significant to managers and partners but not to supervisors and auditing students. Chen (2010) outlines the competence

required for being nurses, including behavioural traits such as passion, observational accuracy, judgement, responsibility, skill efficiency and the ability to care, communicate, manage, improve oneself, innovate, research and adapt to stress. However, the higher the level, the more implicit will be the connotation of competence.

McQuaid and Lindsay (2005:209) list employability's necessary attributes:

> *"basic social skills, honesty and integrity, basic personal presentation, reliability, willingness to work, understanding of actions and consequences, positive attitude to work, responsibility and self-discipline."*

Harvey (2000:8) emphasises that "employers want interactive and personal attributes. The core interactive attributes are communication, teamwork and interpersonal skills." However, it is difficult to produce a list of the attributes that will satisfy all employers, as different jobs require different attributes. Regardless of which ones are appropriate to the beauty sector, more attention seems to be paid to knowledge and skills than to the development of attributes in the vocational education setting.

Beauty textbooks[18] identify only those attributes required for beauty professionals: however, they only listed them rather than discussed the requirements in detail or addressed the level at which they are needed. These attributes include a positive attitude, willingness to learn, passion, initiative, teamwork, customer care, reliability, honesty and punctuality, respect for confidentiality, a sense of responsibility, high personal and professional ethics, creativity, leadership, flexibility and self-management (Armstrong et al. 2006; Taylor 2009a; Goldsbro & White 2009; Stafford 2009; Braisdell & Lenard 2011).

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[18] The relevant beauty textbooks include *VTCT Level 1 Foundation Diploma in Hair and Beauty Studies* (Stafford 2009), *VTCT Level 2 Higher Diploma in hair and Beauty Studies* (Taylor 2009b) and *The Hair and Make-Up Artist's Handbook* published by Braisdell and Lenard (2011).

Huang (2003) identifies 29 skills necessary for beauty salon managers, classifying them under the headings of working attitudes, leadership management and reflection. A professional attitude, listed under reflection, is identified by both salon managers and HE lecturers as absolutely vital (Huang 2003). It can be seen that some of the attributes adduced for beauty practitioners are the same as those mentioned above by McQuaid and Lindsay (2005:209) and Harvey (2000:8): in other words, some particular attributes such as a positive attitude, honesty and responsibility are universally applicable.

3.2.3 Standards and standardisation

The terms 'standard' and 'standardisation' are rarely defined, as they are mostly used as tools rather than a systematic theory. Standard and standardisation are closely related. Once a standard is established, its targets must be aligned with it. In other words, a standard is a benchmark of standardisation, while standardisation is a tool of alignment.

A standard here implies a level of competence. A common misperception of it is as a rigorous, generally applicable norm. The Oxford online Dictionaries defines the term as "a level of quality or attainment." (Oxford University Press 2016) The concept does not equate to generalisation, as agreement can be sought within a standard. De Vries (2002:11) explains, on the other hand, that

> *"generalisation to the concepts of standards and standardisation is possible, including general advantages of standardisation, definitions, decision-making in standardisation, different types of standards, and different ways to arrive at standards."*

However, the framework for a standard must have some measure of comprehensiveness in order that all relevant stakeholders can implement it while allowing them to interpret the standard in their own way without exceeding its scope.

The advantage of establishing a standard is not only to distinguish between educational institutions, and between education and industry, but also to

maintain a certain level of consistency in teaching and practice. Sultana (2009) gives two reasons for developing a competence framework: one is to establish the standard for assessing performance and for developing a training programme, the other is to provide a guideline for self-development and self-evaluation. De Vries (2001:92) also argues that "standards provide solutions for matching problems…" Thus, the standard can be used not only to rectify a mismatch between education and industry but also to adjust the inconsistency between academic lecturers and industrial trainers on the one hand and assessors on the other.

The UK's NOS were established as a form of competence standard for the vocational education and industrial sectors to develop training programmes (see Section 2.3.2.1), but it is not considered as a guideline for self-development. Bolden and Gosling (2004) and (Lester 2015) criticise competence standards as being too fragmented, outcome-focused, universal, rigid, mechanical and detailed. They also point out that such standards omit "qualities, interaction and situational factors". Hager (1993) also states that HE will not adopt any competency-based approach if it is defined in a narrowly mechanistic way. This might explain why some HVETs adopt other domains' benchmarks than NOS (see Section 5.2.1.2). However, such concerns could be alleviated by further developing NOS into the levels above 4.

When setting different levels of standard, it is necessary to set one standard as a foundation and to develop levels on that basis. The core value will not change, but the breadth and depth of knowledge and skills can be expanded as appropriate for the various levels of development. Lester (2015) maintains that the current standard focuses on role needs rather than qualification levels, and suggests that linking standards to those levels could allow practitioners to upgrade their qualifications to degree level. However, this will be only of benefit if the standard is mapped to a significant degree and implemented into curricula to ensure that graduates meet the criteria. Likewise, standard levels could be

implemented into Continuing Professional Development (CPD) to validate professional status.

A standard can be interpreted through a variety of levels and scales. The lower the level, the more explicit the description, providing unambiguous instructions. Higher standard levels are more implicit, allowing observation by various assessment methods. In other words, a variety of approaches can achieve a given standard, but in order to prevent diffuseness, standardisation should be adopted as a measure and a means of harmonising differences.

Standardisation is required in order to maintain a standard. Standardisation is also called isology (Krechmer 2014; Krechmer 2007). Krechmer further defines isology as "the science of standards" (p.1). Krechmer (2014) briefly introduces three categories of standard, "measurement, similarity and compatibility". The initial standard was set as a measure to ensure consistency, resulting in similarity. When more factors were involved, variation inevitably emerged. Krechmer notes the relationship between similarity and compatibility: similarity may suppress innovative possibilities, while compatibility accelerates variation and innovation. Both emerged to provide consistency through repetition.

Standardisation has been widely used in various disciplines and for a variety of purposes irrespective of whether the areas involved are technical or non-technical. Such areas include web-based learning (Anido-Rifón et al. 2001), vocational and professional education (Krechmer 2007), business and marketing (Sundbo 2002; Egan 2002) and academic education (De Vries 2002). There are several definitions of standardisation, with each researcher tending to choose the one that justifies their position. "The act of checking or adjusting (by comparison with a standard) the accuracy of a measuring instrument" is the definition employed universally in this study, which holds that standardisation is an action to bring the variation between individuals into alignment once a standard has been established, rather than being an activity to produce standards, as De Vries (2001:91) maintains.

The potential benefits of standardisation include improving the consistency of communication and business quality, as well as reducing costs (Krechmer 2007:19). For beauty education, FE adopts NOS levels, while some HVET institutions adopt academic standards. This may result in a lack of consistency between the two.

De Vries (2002) highlights the importance of standardised education and of its relevance to the professional tasks and the competences they entail. The benefit of standardisation is seen as the consistency of its assessment decisions, whether those are made by a single assessor or many (Greatorex & Shannon 2003:3) Standardisation should not be treated as a mere formality: it should rather be used as a method to share both good and bad practices and discover agreed solutions based on the universal application of the standard. The standard itself can, of course, be reviewed, a process that should also incorporate the full range of relevant stakeholder opinions.

De Vries (2002) proposes six categories of people involved in such stakeholder (i.e. external) standardisation: "a general manager, a technical manager, a technical expert, other technical experts, colleagues and users of [the] standard". The present study modifies this to define key stakeholders in the standard's establishment:

1. Government agencies who decide on funding and are familiar with policies
2. Representatives of professional bodies who can liaise with all parties concerned
3. Academic and vocational educators
4. Industrial experts and employers, including trainers and instructors
5. Individual users of the standard such as practitioners and professionals
6. Others possibly involved in drawing up the standard, such as organisations related to health and safety, hygiene and the environment

Of these six categories, education and industry are probably the main stakeholders that must agree on, execute and maintain the standard, and are therefore those stakeholders that most need to collaborate.

3.3 Skill formation

Levels of competence should be defined and established. The terms often used for this are skill formation or skill acquisition. The literal meaning of the term 'skill formation' seems to centre on skills development, but Brown (1999:235) sees it as "the development of the social capacity for learning, innovation and productivity". The development of this capacity is gradual. The theory of skill formation tends to connect VET to the job performance (Ashton & Sung 1994; Campbell et al. 1999; Sidnick 2004).

The development of levels of competence is linked to the national economy (Ashton et al. 1999). Campbell et al. (1999) discern a positive relationship linking skill levels with jobs, competitiveness, living standards and deprivation. While economic development is not at the heart of the present study, it should ensue from a well-structured skill formation process, one that developmentally and holistically connects learning stages to career progression. Surveys show that 10 per cent of the UK's labour force are not equipped with sufficient skills to perform their jobs, and that 20 per cent of job vacancies are unfilled (Sidnick 2004; HABIA 2007b). However, Sidnick (2004), a policy adviser to the British Chambers of Commerce, points out that much of this thinking on skill formation seems to be "driven by an educational outlook rather than a real understanding of what is happening in the economy and the labour market."

An increasing demand for higher levels of vocational education and training leads to credential inflation (see 2.3.1.1). Nearly half of graduates work in positions that do not require degrees (Sidnick 2004). Russ-Eft (1995) also shows that academic ability may fail to mirror career attainment. This is reflected in the great number of college and university graduates in Taiwan

working as beauticians at beauty counters, positions that normally require only FE qualifications. This example well explains the phenomena of over-education and the mismatch between talents and positions.

Hoffmann (1999) demonstrates that setting minimum performance levels, standardising task performance and discriminating between levels of performance to create a hierarchy of task performance can all raise standards. In beauty-related industries, delivering treatment services is a beauty practitioner's main role. Practitioners at each level should therefore be able to give treatments to the required standard, whose details, procedures and competences may vary with the level of competence.

Levels of competence have been widely discussed. Dreyfus and Dreyfus' model of 'novice to expert' is one that has been extensively used to distinguish between competence development levels (Benner 1982; Lester 2005a; Lester 2005b; Honken 2013; Dreyfus 2004; Raelin 1997; Knight 2002; Curtis 2004; Lester 2001a; Shanteau 1992; Gordon 2008). Their initial model (1980) is shown in Figure 3-1. This differs from the model of skill acquisition they developed in 2004 (see Figure 3-2), which exhibits five stages of skills acquisition: novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient and expert. There is an additional 'advanced beginner' stage between the first two. It can be seen that 'master' was removed in the later version.

Skill Level / Mental Function	NOVICE	COMPETENT	PROFICIENT	EXPERT	MASTER
Recollection	Non-situational	Situational	Situational	Situational	Situational
Recognition	Decomposed	Decomposed	Holistic	Holistic	Holistic
Decision	Analytical	Analytical	Analytical	Intuitive	Intuitive
Awareness	Monitoring	Monitoring	Monitoring	Monitoring	Absorbed

Figure 3-1: Mental activity and skill acquisition (Dreyfus and Dreyfus 1980)

Skill Level	Components	Perspective	Decision	Commitment
1. Novice	Context free	None	Analytic	Detached
2. Advanced beginner	Context free and situational	None	Analytic	Detached
3. Competent	Context free and situational	Chosen	Analytic	Detached understanding and deciding; involved outcome
4. Proficient	Context free and situational	Experienced	Analytic	Involved understanding; detached deciding
5. Expert	Context free and situational	Experienced	Intuitive	Involved

Figure 3-2: Five stages of skill acquisition (Dreyfus 2004)

A possible issue with this is that it does not distinguish enough between levels: however, it has been widely adapted for different contexts with the introduction of more structured differentiation between levels. For example, Lester (2005) embodies Dreyfus and Dreyfus' model for the Conservation Institute's professional standards (see Figure 3-3 and Figure 3-4). In Figure 3-3, he adapts Eraut's scale of characteristics, determining that the stages up to 'competent' are assessed analytically and that its decision-making is rational, while the equivalents for 'proficient' and 'expert' are intuitive.

<table>
<tr><th>Level</th><th>Stage</th><th>Characteristics</th><th>How know-ledge etc is treated</th><th>Recognition of relevance</th><th>How context is assessed</th><th>Decision-making</th></tr>
<tr><td>1</td><td>Novice</td><td>Rigid adherence to taught rules or plans
Little situational perception
No discretionary judgement</td><td>Without reference to context</td><td rowspan="2">None</td><td rowspan="2">Analytically</td><td rowspan="3">Rational</td></tr>
<tr><td>2</td><td>Advanced beginner</td><td>Guidelines for action based on attributes or aspects (aspects are global characteristics of situations recognisable only after some prior experience)
Situational perception still limited
All attributes and aspects are treated separately and given equal importance</td><td rowspan="3">In context</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Competent</td><td>Coping with crowdedness
Now sees actions at least partially in terms of longer-term goals
Conscious, deliberate planning
Standardised and routinised procedures</td><td rowspan="2">Present</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Proficient</td><td>Sees situations holistically rather than in terms of aspects
Sees what is most important in a situation
Perceives deviations from the normal pattern
Decision-making less laboured
Uses maxims for guidance, whose meanings vary according to the situation</td><td rowspan="2">Holistically</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>Expert</td><td>No longer relies on rules, guidelines or maxims
Intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding
Analytic approaches used only in novel situations or when problems occur
Vision of what is possible</td><td>Intuitive</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 3-3: Novice-to-Expert scale (1) (Eraut 1989:182; Eraut 1994:124; Lester 2005b)

	Knowledge	Standard of work	Autonomy	Coping with complexity	Perception of context
1. **Novice**	Minimal, or 'textbook' knowledge without connecting it to practice	Unlikely to be satisfactory unless closely supervised	Needs close supervision or instruction	Little or no conception of dealing with complexity	Tends to see actions in isolation
2. **Beginner**	Working knowledge of key aspects of practice	Straightforward tasks likely to be completed to an acceptable standard	Able to achieve some steps using own judgement, but supervision needed for overall task	Appreciates complex situations but only able to achieve partial resolution	Sees actions as a series of steps
3. **Competent**	Good working and background knowledge of area of practice	Fit for purpose, though may lack refinement	Able to achieve most tasks using own judgement	Copes with complex situations through deliberate analysis and planning	Sees actions at least partly in terms of longer-term goals
4. **Proficient**	Depth of understanding of discipline and area of practice	Fully acceptable standard achieved routinely	Able to take full responsibility for own work (and that of others where applicable)	Deals with complex situations holistically, decision-making more confident	Sees overall 'picture' and how individual actions fit within it
5. **Expert**	Authoritative knowledge of discipline and deep tacit understanding across area of practice	Excellence achieved with relative ease	Able to take responsibility for going beyond existing standards and creating own interpretations	Holistic grasp of complex situations, moves between intuitive and analytical approaches with ease	Sees overall 'picture' and alternative approaches; vision of what may be possible

Figure 3-4: Novice-to-Expert scale (2) (Lester 2005b)

Lester (2010) characterises the levels of qualification framework as "level of complexity of learning or work" and implements Dreyfus and Dreyfus' model to demonstrate the 'level of proficiency' (p.1) (see Figure 3-5), thereby tacitly agreeing with them that it is possible to develop from novice to expert stages. This variety of application could reflect the flexibility with which it can be adapted to different professions. However, it remains open to question whether some occupations require Dreyfus' five-stage model (Lester 2001b). Lester (2005:1) also notes that "The 'expert' level does not signify that development stops, as expert practitioners need to evaluate their practice and keep up-to-date with new evidence."

Proficiency level	*Description*
Novice	Incomplete understanding, needs supervision to complete tasks
Advanced beginner	Working understanding, can complete simpler aspects without supervision
Competent	Good working and background understanding, able to complete work independently though may lack refinement
Proficient	Deep understanding, can achieve high standard routinely
Expert	Authoritative knowledge / deep holistic understanding, excellence achieved with ease

Figure 3-5: Level of proficiency (Lester 2010)

While Dreyfus and Dreyfus' model of skill acquisition has been widely employed in the development of professional expertise (Eraut 1989; Eraut 1994; Fook et

al. 2000; Dall'Alba et al. 2006; Lester 2010), Dall'Alba et al. (2006) point to some purported limitations. In attempting to answer the question of why some but not others become expert, it overlooks important ways of attaining the expert level, together with the relationship between the individual and their practice (p395). They also regard the model as being too generalised, and as lacking a connection to specific practices. Benner (1982:402), on the other hand, finds their model useful for nursing precisely because of its catholicity. The model's levels of assessment structure and expertise have also been adapted for engineering (Honken 2013), giving learners clear guidance and a structure to their career development. Fook et al. (2000) also refine Dreyfus and Dreyfus' five-stage model (see Figure 3-2) into seven stages: pre-student, beginner, advanced beginner, competent, proficient, experienced and expert.

Another type of skill formation is the UK's Office of Government Commerce (OGC) (2004), which has also constructed a guideline to help people identify their levels of competence through self-assessment. Its proficiency level runs from no skill through awareness, practitioner and expert to innovator. Chi (2006:22) has adapted a proficiency scale from Hoffman (1998:4-5) (see Figure 3-6). The model grades skill formation into six levels, from novice to master. The threshold of competence is the level of journeyman, whose expertise would be refined when it is upgraded to the expert and master levels. The main point illustrated by these models is that the main progression is from competent to expert, which may require a considerable time to develop.

Figure 3-6: A proficiency scale (Chi 2006)

The skills formations discussed above all have different starting and ending points. For example, OGC (2004) begins with no skills required, while the others begin at novice level, with a limited amount of situational perception and the ability to complete tasks under supervision (Dreyfus & Dreyfus 1980; Chi 2006; Lester 2010).

Chinese history features a development of occupational and professional status. Its informal classification of social status, 工 (gong), 匠 (jiang), 術 (shu), 師 (shi) and 家 (jia), can be incorporated into this study. The equivalent could be taken as labourer, craftsman/artisan/journeyman, technician, professional/expert and master (see Figure 3-7). This classification is of various skill levels and implied social status for occupations and professions. Standards of proficiency by status and class are clearly defined from the lower levels of occupation (i.e. physical labour) to the higher professions (with intellectual property).

Unlike the previously mentioned models, this one shows career development from occupation to profession. Labour is indicated as a working class level, while a 'master' could be interpreted as an innovator, evolving their practices into new styles and establishing their own schools.

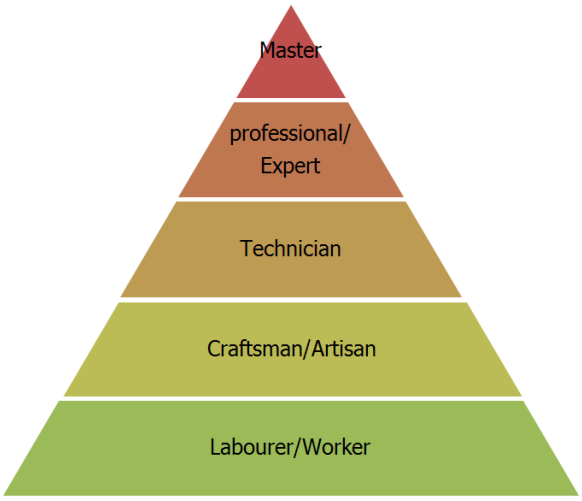


Figure 3-7: Ancient Chinese levels of profession

The brief explanation for each level is as follows:

Labourer/worker can refer to someone whose work involves physical labour. They may be competent in a particular skill and able to follow instructions, rules and plans and adhere to routines.

A **craftsman/artisan** can be understood as a skilled worker. They are good at duplicating to a good crafted standard, but are not necessarily creative. They may possess a particular skill, but lack originality and excellence.

A **technician** is someone possessing technical knowledge developed through practice. They can follow technical procedures and are very practical, but lack the theoretical knowledge underlying those practices.

It would be expected of someone at **professional/expert** level that they would be able to instruct and train others to perform to a certain standard. Professionals can apply theory in practice, and develop practice based on theory. They are creative and reflect on their actions.

Master, the highest level, indicates the ability to develop one's own body of theory and practice style. They may offer training programmes for novices and offer master classes to professionals.

This model could take graduation as its starting point. For instance, in Taiwan, FE beauty graduates could correspond to 'labourer', and HE graduates to 'technician'. An objection could be raised to the application of the skill formation structure to education qualifications, as students have very limited on-site experience to achieve a full technician or craftsman competence standard (unless, of course, such experience is a criterion for the qualification). A higher level of qualification could, however, result in a different pacing of skill formation, with some levels such as labourer and craftsman omitted or completed in a shorter time. Further development to expert and master level could be through CPD as well as experience. This structure actually embodies the contemporary hierarchy of social status rather than progression and achievement. Its clear distinction between levels, however, makes it adaptable for developmental levels.

None of the models described above specify how the levels they identify can be merged into the current qualifications structure. Most people enter the job market with particular qualifications. The point of entry into the structure and the achievement level reached depends on competence. Levels of skill formation should be more systematically integrated into VET levels to ensure that graduates are at the appropriate standard of proficiency. Proficiency levels could also be more consistently assimilated with professional development, their status being verified through appropriate assessment.

This study establishes the principle that each stage should involve the full development, from Novice to Basic Level (BL), to Fully Functional Level (FFL) and thence to Expert (see Figure 3-8), as indicated by Lester's (2010) Levels of Proficiency: that "it is possible to be 'expert' at a level 1 activity…or 'novice' at level 8...(p2)".

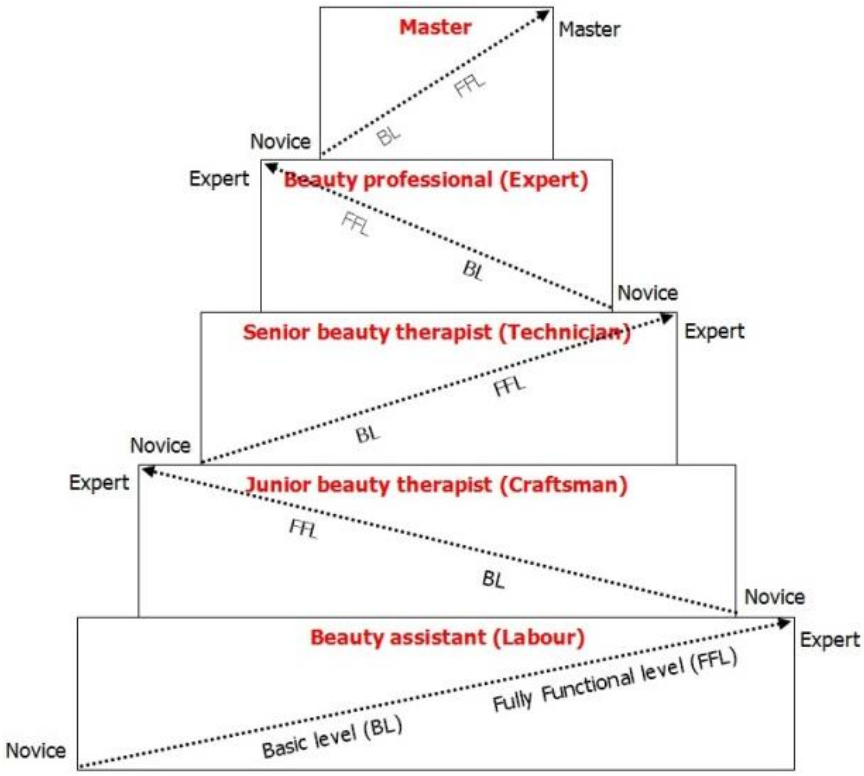


Figure 3-8: Stages of development from novice to expert for the beauty sector

(developed by the researcher)

Importantly, every entrant will be considered as a novice when they commence each level, and become an expert when they end it. Students should experience every upgrade to the next level as a new adventure entailing new tasks and duties with which to familiarise themselves. There are no constraints on the length of time taken to complete each level: that is determined by each individual's ability and developmental pace. Competences can be accumulated and developed throughout the process.

Tanaka (2009:172) maintains that the concepts of specialist, expert and professional should be differentiated, and further explains that specialists can excel in their domains by dint of long-term training, while experts exhibit superior performance in their professional domains. Tanaka takes make-up artists as an example of professionals, characterising their output as

independent and autonomous and finding that they are not normally constrained by or beholden to an organization.

Experts are held to be competent and qualified, with the ability to apply their expertise to new contexts under similar conditions. Individual qualities are the key to this process (Nokelainen & Ruohotie 2009:5). Glaser and Chi (1988) highlight the element of proficiency in determining expert levels. For example, experts would be expected to solve problems more efficiently and effectively than others. Chi (2006) focuses on knowledge as it is considered to be the key to developing expertise. Van Der Vleuten (1996) also sees the strong correlation between expertise and the development and application of knowledge. The expertise required for each stage of development should keep pace with current developments, which is why it must be reviewed and embedded into standards and developmental levels of skill acquisition. For Hunt (2006:34), the development of expertise requires both talent and a passion for developing professional knowledge. Knowledge development is clearly seen as an important measure of expertise. Ericsson (2006:3) et al. explains that expertise "refers to the characteristics, skills, and knowledge that distinguish experts from novices and less experienced people".

Dall'Alba et al. (2006:387) points out that "not all practitioners achieve expert status", which is understandable. At higher levels, practitioners' personal capabilities such as attributes, which not all would necessarily possess, would be key. Some attributes such as leadership charisma might be nurtured and developed to some extent, but they are essentially untrainable (see \section 3.2.2.3).

Tanaka (2009:174) sees the professional as embodying four aspects: ability (scientific, systematic and specialised), attitude (self-regulated, professional and ethical), spirit (i.e. of public service) and organisation (rational reward and approval authority), adding personal quality and environment in particular as closely correlated elements. Ability, skill or technique, morale, ethics, character,

luck are among the vital factors in the formation of personal quality (Tanaka 2009), while environment factors involve family, education and occupational surroundings, society and current conditions generally. His focus is the development of personality through individual interaction with the environment, and he therefore groups professionals into three classes: first, second and third. He considers that the overall level would rise as time proceeds, but personal quality is crucial to becoming a first class professional. This quality derives from two essential sources, one innate and the other nurtured. A constant desire to overcome their own weaknesses and surpass themselves in order to reach a higher level is the spirit that a true professional should have.

Professionals and experts are variously identified and defined. The following elements are common to all:

- Sufficient domain knowledge and skills
- Attributes associated with professionals and experts. These include personal qualities such as self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation and self-direction.
- Ethics
- Independent working without being isolated from the community or society

It is difficult to specify the number of practice years and the educational levels necessary to qualify as a professional or expert, as these can vary according to the complexity of the domain. Lester (2010) gave an example of a fully-qualified professional at Level 7 and suggests that the length of time taken to reach expert status in complex professional work could be 15 years but will depend on the complexity of the profession. According to Watkins (1999), anything above a Level 4 qualification should be regarded as a higher or professional level. This is questionable, as they may be considered as a 'novice professional' if their onsite experience is very limited. Reid et al. (2011:1)

regards this stage of 'novice professional' as a more acceptable starting point for establishment in a profession.

While most scholars discuss the context of competence, Lester (1995:5) proposes two models, the "technical-rational model" (p1) and the "creative-interpretive model" (p2), to denote distinct levels of proficiency. The former is led by logic, while the latter's logic is defined by values. The first model can be illustrated by the ability to read a map, indicating the capacity to solve problems logically in a *familiar* situation, and the second by the ability to make a map, which involves in-depth and complex levels of thinking and the ability to create desired outcomes in an *unfamiliar* context. This is seen as a "meta-competence", which means the ability to "create and define their own task". The only concern with this concept is that it can only be applied to highly self-regulated and self-motivated professionals and higher-level intellectuals.

Lester also encourages professionals to work beyond presently recognised competences (Lester 1995). Although competence is still vital in professional development, as it specifies certain capabilities (Nokelainen & Ruohotie 2009:6), the ability to progress as a professional does require looking beyond recognised competence when facing unfamiliar situations. In the context of lifelong learning, it implies that a competent professional should be able to identify their own learning needs and draw the blueprints of their career development.

The highest level of skill formation is 'Master', although that level is rarely mentioned in discussions of skills acquisition. The master level in this context is quite different to either mastery in practice or an academic Master's degree. According to Benoliel (2010), multiple intelligences including cognitive, emotional, social and cultural are required to be a master negotiator. Certainly, the intelligence to apply them appropriately is essential. Emotional intelligence includes several personal characteristics such as self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, patience and empathy. In other words, being a Master involves

a multitude of features, to the point where mastery is achieved by comprehensive study, with the elements being thoroughly grasped and integrated. This is how new schools of practice are formed. For the beauty sector in particular, aesthetic intelligence may be required to fulfil a master's role, quite apart from the four intelligences mentioned by Benoliel.

3.4 Professional development

After formal VET comes professional development, which constitutes another upgrading of the competences required for professional career development. It is a matter for debate whether the beauty sector is regarded as an occupation, a profession, a professional occupation or an occupational profession. Developmental stages are in any case essential. Conventionally, 'occupation' tends to be used in a technical and lower-status context. The boundary between occupation and profession is ambiguous. For Eraut (1994), "the professions are a group of occupations the boundary of which is ill-defined (p1)", and "…experts often cannot explain the nature of their own expertise" (p102).

Freidson (1999) holds that "a profession is a kind of occupation. [It]…is work…and the knowledge and skill required to perform it. (p118)" He further explains that

> *"professional work is defined as specialised work that cannot be performed mechanically….It is believed to require abstract, theoretical knowledge…., professional work is distinguished from craft work by being a theoretically based discretionary specialisation*." (p119)

Although beauty practice is not yet regarded as a true profession, it could be in time (Sheen 2006). Beauty industries certainly proclaim their professional status (Barham 1999), as do all beauty-related textbooks.

Continuing Professional Education (CPE) and Continuing Professional Development (CPD) would be effective means of improving competence levels.

They are used to maintain professional competence, and CPE can be incorporated into CPD. Professional development develops professional competence through education and training to improve daily practice.

Dall'Alba et al's (2006:384) definition of professional development includes all types of formal and informal professional education and training within the academic and industrial sectors. Maxwell (1995) states that

> *"many professions realise the need for professional and staff development in order to provide a quality service for consumers and also to contribute to job satisfaction for the employees."*

However, Hager and Gonczi (1991) criticise what they see as CPE's loss of focus and its failure to fulfil its purpose, as it does not train professionals in the practical components required for competence, nor does it explain possible outcomes for every developmental stage.

Industrial CPD takes the form of on-the-job learning (Dall'Alba et al. 2006). In reality, such training tends to be job-specific rather than being designed to improve individual competence for current professional practice. The Scottish Borders Council defines CPD thus:

> *"The maintenance and enhancement of knowledge, expertise and competence of professionals throughout their careers to a plan formulated with regard to the needs of the professional, the employer, the profession and society."*

CPD's functions include the maintenance of current professional knowledge and skills, the updating and extension of professional knowledge and skills, the development of professional effectiveness and the increase of job satisfaction (Scottish Borders Council 2002).

3.5 Summary of Chapter 3

Competence emphasises the application of abilities themselves to the achievement of tasks to certain standards, while competence focuses on the quality of those abilities demonstrated at various levels. The purpose of

establishing competence standards was as a guidance for teaching and learning in preparation for employment, used as a benchmark for assessment and utilised for identifying learning/developing needs.

The present study sees the elements of competence, including knowledge, skills and attributes, as key for establishing competence specifications for VET and employment. The required competence standard will be aligned to nationally agreed standards for comparison. All standards must be established by agreement with all relevant stakeholders within beauty, so that they may be applied to both education and industry. Standardisation is advised to be carried out to align the difference in interpreting and practising competence standards.

More importantly, the competence standard should be fully integrated into all levels of development, including qualifications and professional development. Analysis of different structures for levels of development was undertaken, highlighting the importance of developing the post-graduation stages of CPD and professional validation, in relation to higher competence levels. Raising individual awareness of the importance of developing competence is thus significant. Attributes that exceed the required skills and knowledge of a competence level must be prepared, in order to bridge career gaps and amalgamate practice and theory.

Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology

4.1 Research framework

This chapter defines the methodology used to respond to the research questions (see Section 1.5). Due to the distinctive differences between Taiwan and the UK, the methodological plans for both countries were considered in relation to different research questions. Accordingly, a framework for the research was drawn, followed by a discussion of the research design and an illustration of the research process, including an explanation of the theoretical approaches adopted in this research. The analytical tools will be explained. The concept of quality in research will be broadly discussed, including the criteria selected for evaluating the methodology. Ethical considerations and possible limitations of methodology will be addressed at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Research framework

This section discusses the research framework and theoretical approaches used in this study. In Chapter 1, the key arguments are addressed. The starting point for this research was the issues identified in the secondary research. The research concept is based on a lens comparison: it uses the understanding of the UK's Vocational Education and Training (VET) approach as a lens to review that of Taiwan (see Figure 4-1). Consequently, isolating the important features of the UK's training approach in order to propose a feasible model for the development of beauty practitioners' competence is a significant step for bridging the identified gap between education and industry in Taiwan.

Research question one was answered through three stages of analysis of the UK structure. The stages undertaken were: understanding of the UK's training structure through analysis of primary documents, literature review and auto-ethnographic experience. Research question two was undertaken through observations and two stages of expert interviews in Taiwan. For Research

question three, the competences were identified and compared through the analysis of expert interviews both in education and industry. Research question four was answered based on the findings of Research questions one and two. The analysis of observations and expert interview from the first stage interview was extracted to propose strategic models for improving Taiwan's training system based on the study of the UK. The models proposed were tested at the second stage of expert interview in Taiwan, to answer Research question five.

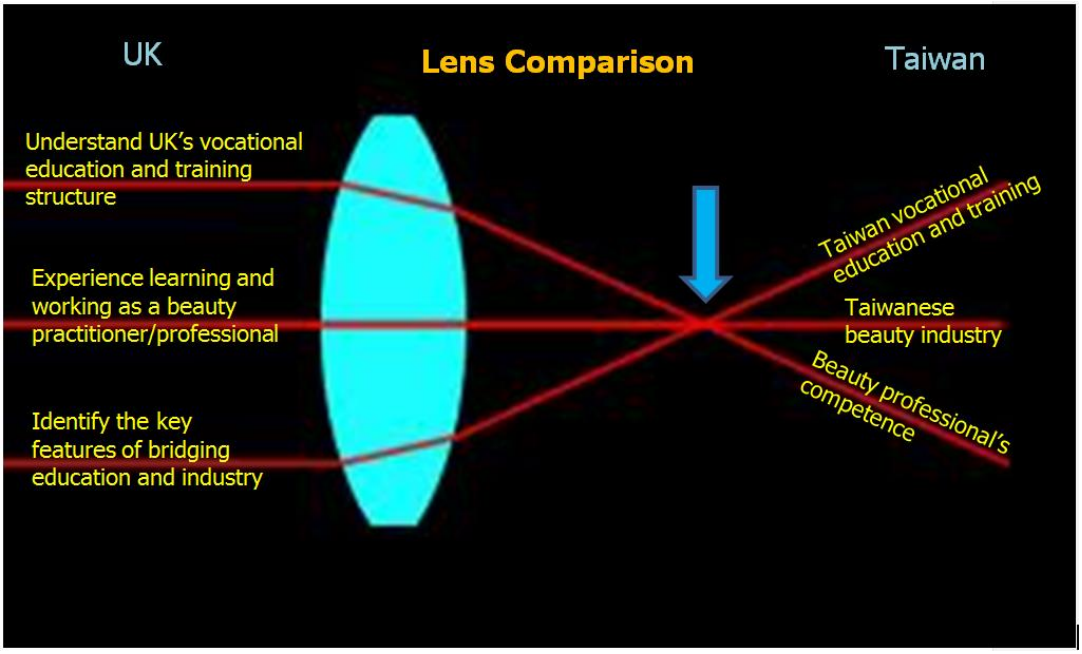


Figure 4-1: Research framework concept

Figure 4-1 displays how a lens comparison was employed to discover the study's focal point, indicated by the blue arrow. Three aspects of the UK's VET for beauty professionals are used as a lens through which to view Taiwan's equivalent. The best approach by which to gauge the effectiveness of education and training in the UK and to identify the key features of the gap between education and industry that needs bridging would be to gain experience in learning and working as a beauty practitioner/professional there. These three points are the means of discovering the focal element that would enable an

effective improvement of Taiwan's VET, and thereby a potential enhancement of industrial practices and the competence of beauty professionals.

In addition to the issues identified by the existing literature and primary research, the differences in the service structure between the two countries can be established by auto-ethnographically observing practitioners' performance in both. The results of such observation would help identify the key issues.

As stated in the Introduction, the 'lens comparison' approach adopted for this research uses the UK's approach to find ways of developing the Taiwanese beauty sector. Lens comparison will be discussed further in Section 0. Although the focus of the study is Taiwan, the effort made to understand how the UK trains beauty professionals is equally important. The research questions were developed to respond to the problems identified in Taiwanese beauty education.

4.2.1 Lens comparison

This section explains the major theoretical approaches employed in this study. Lens comparison is used for the study's framework when one perspective outweighs another: in other words, when one is viewed through the other as lens (Walk 1998a; Pletsch 2010). In this research Taiwan's perspective outweighs the UK's, so the former is viewed through the lens of the researcher's auto-ethnographic experience in the UK.

The study uses this approach as a framework through which to formulate its research design strategy. The intention is to develop an effective strategy by which to improve the competence of Taiwanese beauty professionals. The technique is to examine the UK's vocational development structure and to experience the whole process at first hand. Although this is very time consuming, it does provide valuable experience in the research field.

Considering the present researcher's educational background and industrial experience in the Taiwanese beauty sector, she believed herself to be a suitable

candidate to experience the system used to foster the UK's beauty sector in order to fulfil the research aim. Acquaintance with both countries makes it possible for the review to be truly critical rather than crudely laudatory or disparaging. Walk (1998:1) agrees that

> *"Lens comparisons are useful for illuminating, critiquing, or challenging the stability of a thing that, before the analysis, seemed perfectly understood. Often, lens comparisons take time into account: earlier texts, events, or historical figures may illuminate later ones, and vice versa".*

Thus, this method was considered as an appropriate one for the present study.

The lens approach is not widely seen in research projects. The metaphor of the lens is used to indicate both the researcher's standpoint the study's emphasis. Some researchers use a particular lens as an implement: Georgieva and Allan (2008), for example, employ grounded theory as a lens to develop another theory. Jones (2003) and Lawlor (2003) use ethnography as a lens to reflect on their experience in their practice, while Tapp (2001) and Ezer (2006) use particular models as comparative lenses for understanding and measuring in education and marketing research respectively. Ancona et al. (2001) use multiple lenses to focus on various aspects of an organisational scale.

4.2.2 Research approaches

Before selecting data collecting methods to answer the research objectives, the research philosophical position establishes the parameters for research design. In other words, the approach to knowledge development would normally depend on the philosophical thought process (Saunders et al. 2000). Therefore, this section locates the research position of the study.

There are four basic goals of scientific research: exploration, description, explanation, and evaluation which are embodied in qualitative and quantitative research (Ruane 2005:11-12). Exploratory research tends to be used for understanding and obtaining an insight into research; descriptive research

focuses on describing phenomenon through measuring a quantity; while explanatory research further explains characteristics of the phenomenon. The purpose of evaluation research is to analyse the cause-effect and make a judgment based on the outcome. Apart from descriptive research that tends to adopt quantitative methods of measurements, the other approaches are embodied through qualitative data and enable in-depth discussions.

4.2.2.1 Quantitative approach

Quantitative approach is a theory of knowledge that is often used to explain the facts and value relating to a particular phenomenon, through samples of a substantial number, in order to generalise the regularities. Muijs (2011:1) cited from Aliaga and Gunderson's (2000) definition of quantitative research in the book of *Interactive Statistics:* "Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)". Quantitative research can be divided into two different genres: 'descriptive' and 'experimental' design. A survey is a typical example of descriptive style, as this style tends to use a large scale of study to illustrate the overall phenomena (Denscombe 2003). As for the experimental approach, it is used to test the research proposition. It needs to be operational, testable and manageable so that the facts can be quantified.

This type of research can also be referred to as a positivist style of research, as positivists tend to use scientific methods to explain the phenomena (Merriam 2002:3), which can be measured precisely. Positivism views knowledge that could be produced through deductive logic from empirical theory, which accepts neutrality and objectivity as true. The deductive approach tends to be applied to test a theory through developing a hypothesis (Saunders et al. 2000). This type of approach tends to build upon empirical study, with a rigorous and structured format, to enable repetition by using controls to manage the variables. Typical methods are surveys and experiments. They adopt an iterative tradition of inquiry as they believe that there are patterns to be

repeated until the meaning is found and the question is answered through processes of feedback (Grix 2010; Grbich 2007). However, social science, in relation to humans, is often complex and unpredictable, and quantitative approaches are often considered as a less appropriate approach for dealing with the complexities in human behaviour and interaction. Owing to the nature of positivism, it is used to explain the phenomena with quantified measurement. With the limited study in the field of beauty in Taiwan, the research shall focus on exploration rather than measuring it. Thus, neither the descriptive, nor the experimental approach would meet the needs of the study effectively.

4.2.2.2 Qualitative approach

Qualitative research has been used to explore, explain and evaluate the meaning of social phenomena with evidence being presented in various forms such as dialogues, visual sources or stories (Ruane 2005). The nature of qualitative research is simply defined by Merriam (2002:3): "meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world". The premise is that individuals interpret their interaction with the social world based on their experience and understanding, which is contemplated as post-positivism or an interpretive inquiry. She further explains that it only sets out "to understand the nature of that setting" and "the understanding is an end in itself" (Merriam 2002:5).

Interpretivism, an opposite approach to positivism, is considered as an 'umbrella' that covers a variety of viewpoints in the human sciences. It seeks an understanding and meaning in the social world and declares a belief in subjectivity, which is constructed through the interaction of individuals (Grix 2010). Although it may be restricted by the frames from the researcher's own life experiences to interpret the minds of other people (Grbich 2007; Grix 2010). Therefore, this type of research tends to be qualitative in style. The philosophy of qualitative study is "the discovery of people's feelings, opinions

and experiences from their perceptions in order to achieve an understanding at the individual or group level" (Bennett 2009). It cannot be denied that the research process involves the researcher's feelings, emotions and life experience, which was criticised in that the social phenomena was being framed in the researcher's own frame. However, it is part of the research and can be argued that the patterns can still be found. Thematic analysis is a beneficial tool to find repeated patterns through this type of research to achieve a more unbiased outcome. In-depth understanding of the issues opens up more different interpretations to explore the holistic aspect of viewpoints, which could be valuable as long as the researcher is fully aware of his/her dual role as the researcher and the researched position.

Both positivism and interpretivism are incompatible at the extreme of continuum: therefore, post-positivism has come between them to balance both contrasting paradigms as post-positivism tried to combine both exploratory and explanatory research. It is also called 'critical realism' (Grix 2010:84), which is also one of the most common forms of qualitative research (Trochim 2006). In other words, the post-positivists or critical realists preferably not only strive for an interpretive understanding, but also hunt for an explanation of the social world (Grix 2010).

To date, various qualitative methods such as observations, focus groups, interviews, documentation analysis and so forth have been well recognised. These types of methods are considered to explore in-depth understanding. They are also regarded as useful tools to provide a further justification for supporting descriptive types of research (Ruane 2005). The reason for choosing qualitative methods as the main approach is because the literature review suggested that we have very little understanding of the field and a qualitative research approach lends itself well to exploring new fields of study. Hence, a post-positivist approach is taken to explore and explain phenomena.

4.2.2.3 The choice of research approach

The beauty profession is a genre of human relation business, closely linking to culture, social settings and the interaction with people. Qualitative research is considered to be a more suitable approach towards a human science type of research than quantitative inquiry. Grix (2010:83) explains that interpretivism can be used broadly to explain a wide range of perspectives in the human sciences. Although interpretivists believe in subjectivity and understanding, the quality assurance of research becomes relatively important in order to reduce the doubt of bias.

The investigation of quantitative and qualitative approaches indicates that this research's chosen path of primarily auto-ethnographic and interview methods is more appropriate to use with a qualitative approach under a selective sample, although this is not entirely incompatible with a quantitative approach. Therefore, a quantitative element was considered to be embedded into the qualitative approach.

Birks & Mills (2011:94) quote a definition of inductive thought from Bryant & Charmaz (2007:608) as "a type of reasoning that begins with study of a range of individual cases and extrapolates patterns from them to form a conceptual category." The auto-ethnographic and interview method is much more an inductive type of research, where an understanding of the data to collect – and the methods of collection – is formed from past and current experiences. Due to the fact that this research approach is very much focused on personal insight, knowledge and interpreted judgement, it is predominantly used for understanding subjective experiences, which corresponds to an ethnographic approach (Lester 1999a).

On the whole, this study was designed to combine three exploratory approaches based on qualitative style methods such as observations, interviews and auto-ethnography, to understand the conceptual structure underlying the training approach of the nurturing system both in Taiwan and the UK. The

following section will briefly explain the approaches further and how they fit into the inquiry of the study.

With regard to sampling strategies for auto-ethnography, expert interviews and observations, there are taxonomies of various sampling strategies such as convenience, judgement and theoretical samples (Marshall 1996); probability, purposive, convenience and mixed methods sampling techniques (Teddlie & Yu 2007); parallel, nested and multilevel sampling design (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2007).

Among all, according to Marshall (1996) and Merkens (2004), the judgement sample, also known as purposeful/purposive sample, is the most common for qualitative approach, especially if the research relied on the researcher's practical knowledge. The tendency of adopting purposive samples is to "facilitate analytical generalizations and case-to-case transfers" (Collins et al. 2007:273). This strategy requires the researcher's judgement on selecting appropriate individuals, groups and/or settings for the study (Coyne 1997; Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2007), utilising a criterion sampling scheme (Onwuegbuzie & Collins 2007; Collins et al. 2007).

The observations were built on a purposive sampling approach, based on the categories of beauty business setting in Taiwan (see Section 4.3.3). The sampling strategy for selecting interviewees is also a purposive sampling approach. They need to meet criteria including having the relevant knowledge and experience, being articulate, capable of reflection, having time and willingness to take part in the investigation, as Morse (Morse 1994:288) suggested. They may be not necessarily from the same level in the same institution, according to Merkens (2004:167), but from the same field is definitely required. The criteria for selecting the samples are detailed in Section 4.3.4.1.

However, it is important to note that the purpose of observation at workplaces and expert interviews does not require a quantitative result, but a qualitative outcome. Although the sample size required is reasonably small, the numbers of subjects were selected according to the categories required.

4.3 Research methods

Based on the choice of research approach, the rationale of the strategy needed to be reviewed prior to the data collection. This study was based on the principles of experiential participant observations and interviews, no matter whether it is in a formal or informal style; thus, a qualitative approach is a more appropriate approach towards this study. The data of qualitative research are frequently originated from interviews, observations, and documents. (Merriam 2002:11)

The data collection method employed for Taiwan focuses on observations and semi-structured interviews. Observations were arranged for identifying the issues related to practitioners' performance in the workplace in Taiwan. The semi- structured interviews focused on three closely correlated stakeholders in this study, which are the experts in education and industry within the beauty sector and individual beauty practitioners. The methodological plan designed for the UK, ethnography and/or auto-ethnography was considered to be a useful approach for obtaining an in-depth understanding of UK's nurturing approach.

This study is not quite a mixed method although there was a small proportion of a quantitative element embedded in the qualitative approach. The quantitative element was used to measure the importance of components for the identification of competence. Thus, the analysis tool adopted is thematic analysis as "thematic analysis is commonly used in qualitative research…. It is a process of segmentation, categorisation and relinking of aspects of the database prior to the final interpretation." (Grbich 2007:16) The thematic analysis is used to analyse the concepts recurring within the interviews and

documents. The thematic analysis process will be further discussed in detail in Section 4.4.1.

The common method used for both Taiwan and the UK is documentation analysis. The document resources, such as government funding projects, beauty curriculum and programme specifications, are the strategy used to link the literature review to the primary sources discussed previously. These documents are used to examine the national economic strategy of development, educational policy, social and cultural issues.

4.3.1 Documentation analysis

The purpose of analysing documentation is to review the relevant documentary evidence to understand the structure and the changes in practice of what the documents refer to. Three types of documentary evidence were collected and analysed. The first type of document is the primary sources related to vocational education and training, such as beauty curricula and programme specifications, unit information and so forth. These documents were developed to meet institutional characteristics based on the educational policies or framework. The purpose of analysing these documents is to recognise the approaches used for education and training of beauty professionals in both Taiwan and the UK, and thus gain an understanding of the systems for nurturing beauty professionals.

In Taiwan, the process of collecting these documents was very challenging. The requests to some institutions for English versions of curriculum and programme specifications were rejected, due to a bureaucratic claim of confidentiality (when the Chinese version is available on the website). The reason for requesting an English version was to reduce the chance of deviation that may occur in translation; especially the title of subjects, which could be similar or different in English. Only a few institutions' curriculum and programme specifications could be downloaded from websites. Therefore, the two foremost

relevant programmes such as cosmetic sciences and cosmetology & styling were collected. The limitation here is that the institutions' web information in Taiwan was inadequate and had a lack of transparency.

Additionally, other relevant information such as the UK National Occupational Standard (NOS) relevant to the subject of beauty and make-up was reviewed against the performance criteria. The reason for reviewing these documents is to comprehend the subjects involved in the training programmes and explore the training approaches used in the UK, such that the similarity of curriculum and programme could be seen across the country as they were designed based on the same standard established by authorised organisations. By reviewing these related documents, it was possible to explain the structure of the programme, the number of training hours and the content of the course. Apart from the beauty curricula and the programme specifications, NOS is an important source to investigate as it states the performance criteria for professional bodies to develop units of training programmes and form the assessment structure, which are the key features to learn from. The benchmark and quality assurance are different from FE to HE: thus, both FE and HE beauty programmes are briefly introduced in the study. Overall, it was found that the above elements are important features to form a well-connected collaboration to assure the quality of education and training.

The second type of document is the government funding projects and/or reports. These types of document are either published by government, or promoted through related administrative organisations. Some of the projects were sponsored by authorised organisations and evaluated by allocated research groups or institutions. The Taiwanese government has promoted some funding projects such as 'the Last Mile' and 'Team Teaching'; while, in the UK, work-based learning programmes was an example. From these projects, it can be seen that governments in both countries were trying to drive the communication between education and industry.

Last but not least, aspects of the beauty industrial structure in the two countries could be somewhat similar in one way, but dissimilar in another. For example, in the UK, laser hair removal may only be carried out by qualified beauty therapists, but in Taiwan this type of treatment is excluded from the category of beauty practice and can only be performed by qualified medical professionals. Therefore, market reports could illustrate the industrial structure. The limitation of this category is that Taiwanese market research is very limited.

4.3.2 Auto-ethnography

Auto-ethnography is a new approach of ethnography, containing the essence of ethnography together with a style of combining autobiography and ethnography (Change 2007; Ellis et al. 2011). The difference between autobiography and ethnography is the position of the author is shifted from viewing oneself internally (autobiography), to a position of viewing oneself from outside (ethnography) (Grbich 2007).

Ethnography has evolved from anthropology and finally to its own recognition over time (Hammersley & Atkinson 2007:1). There are different claims about its historical background: however, the ethnographic style is definitely a twentieth-century product and is widely used in different disciplines such as sociology, education studies, cultural studies and so forth (Atkinson & Hammersley 1994:249).

Ethnography has been classified as a small-scale, but an in-depth, qualitative method used to explore cultural and/or social phenomena (Smith et al. 2003), which positions itself between a philosophical paradigm and a method (Atkinson & Hammersley 1994). This type of research is based on a 'phenomenologically oriented paradigm' (p5), which includes a diverse subjective viewpoint (Fetterman 2010).

In ethnography, there are four types of participant observation, namely: 'complete observer', 'observer as participant', 'participant as observer' and

'complete participant' (Atkinson & Hammersley 1994). Apart from complete observer, the rest of the types contain a certain level of involvement in participation. While auto-ethnography is defined as placing the self in the social context (Coffey 1999), it serves a similar purpose. The obvious difference is that ethnography addresses the participant's perspective more and auto-ethnography is a reflection of the author's voice as a participant. The reason for employing auto-ethnography is because the researcher is a beauty practitioner/professional in both Taiwan and the UK, so the insight, knowledge and understanding of the field will bring a different perspective. This empowers the researcher to contribute her knowledge to fill a gap in this field, as this approach has never been done before. It is important to note that in this participant observation, occasionally the observer as participant and participant as observer were used, according to situations and settings.

'Participant observation', 'ethnography' and 'fieldwork' could be used as synonyms (Delamont 2004:206): however, in this study, they may be used to refer to the auto-ethnographic experiences involving the techniques of ethnographic data collection such as participant observation. The phase of participant observation also included a series of unstructured informal interviews. As the previous chapter stated, the majority of existing literature related to beauty sectors is published by researchers from diverse disciplines such as sociology, business, health care, medicine and so on, which provides different angles of viewpoints on the beauty sector. Whereas, this study provides a complementary viewpoint from a beauty practitioner using the auto-ethnographic approach, which was considered as a useful tool for this particular study based on the factors identified in Chapter 2 and above.

Auto-ethnography has recently been a trend in social research even though there are some concerns about the effect of self-representation (Plummer 2001:398) and "usurping participants' rights to self-definition" (Murphy & Dingwall 2001:345). Murphy & Dingwall (2001:345) highlight that the auto-

ethnographic style still could involve ethical issues. In addition, the process of data collection includes the author's experience in the subjective approach. Subjectivity may always be a concern of auto-ethnography as there is a certain weight granted to the authorial voice and perspectives (Murphy & Dingwall 2001:345; Hammersley & Atkinson 2007:204): however, it is a spirit of this style. If the issue of subjectiveness cannot be prevented, it might be better to embrace it. This idiosyncratic element can be seen from the various terms for auto-ethnography such as 'narratives of the self' (Ellis 1991), 'personal introspection' (Emerson et al. 2001;361) and 'ethnographic biography' (Plummer 2001:398).

The difference between ethnography and auto-ethnography is subtle in position. For instance, spending time of observing and following the researched subjects (Ruane 2005) is far different from being part of them from a personal point of view. When being part of them, the surroundings have all become relevant to auto-ethnographer. Certainly, there is still a difference between the researcher/auto-ethnographer and the researched subjects which is 'the thinking'. It distinguishes the difference in participation. Alongside the auto-ethnography, observations and informal interviews are also used to moderate the subjectivity.

Although this research employs auto-ethnography, it is neither a biography, nor a fiction. The phenomena described here do happen and many of the viewpoints or comments of the researcher were confirmed by the participants. More importantly, it is a viewpoint from an author in social research and also a beauty practitioner, who experiences the nurturing process in a different cultural environment. It may contain a certain level of personal feelings and emotions, through the impact of 'cultural shock' in the process, but the effect cannot be misinterpreted as the focus is on the facts not personal feelings. Emerson et al. (2001:361) argue that over focus on the subjectivity of auto-ethnography may overlook the depth of experiential reflection.

Although Delamont (2007;2004) considers that there is no requirement to physically participate in the activities that those being observed do, Atkinson and Hammersley (1994) argue that it is unlikely to study the social world without participating. It can be argued that without really participating or living in it, the investigation is like the Chinese phrase 'scratching an itch from outside one's boot', which implies to attempt an ineffective solution. For instance, researchers could observe how a learner is being assessed, but they could not experience how the learner feels while being assessed: the most appropriate phrase is to use the Chinese metaphor to illuminate personal feeling and emotion, which is 'only the wearer knows where the shoes pain'. This view of 'being part of it' is somewhat supported by Atkinson & Hammersley (1994:249) and Krüger (2008:74). The value of this study is that the researcher took part in all the activities in different roles in this auto-ethnographic study. The impact on the personal feelings and emotions, as a participant, by the surrounding others, was complex and somewhat strange in this unfamiliar culture, as Delamont (2007:212) addresses.

Furthermore, the purpose of the auto-ethnographic approach is to build an understanding based on the experiences. The participant-observation focused on not only participating in the teaching and learning, but also in observing the UK's approach to nurturing beauty professionals and reflecting back to Taiwan's. Obviously, there were opportunities to carry out informal interviews, when necessary, in order to clarify some confusion or answer the emergent questions during the ethnographic process. Since the ethnographer is claimed as the most important instrument in this type of method (Fetterman 2010), the auto-ethnographer with a full set of experiences in the field can be considered as an asset to this project, even though this study is more of an auto-ethnographic experience than auto/ethnographic research itself.

The auto-ethnographic participation undertaken involves different settings for analysis. An example of this would be that in the institutions, teaching and

learning, cultural difference, attitudes, assessment measures and so on have all been considered, specifically in the role as participant as a learner, a lecturer and an assessor. While in the industrial setting, work experiences in beauty salons, theatres, photo shoots at studios and various locations during employment, freelance and voluntary works are also included (see Section 5.2.2 and Appendix Q). This included two weeks in a beauty salon and a series of brief freelance opportunities offered by the FE College. This approach, so far, has not been used in any research related to the beauty field. Unstructured informal interviews, formal interviews and documentation analysis were employed to complement the participant observation. The reason for adopting informal interviews is because it should be more "user-friendly", and can "progress much as a conversation does" and the questions can emerge from the conversation as Fetterman (2010:41) suggests, especially in the context of participation as a member of the group.

This auto-ethnography is not only about what the observer sees and hears, but also about how the observer experiences and responds when the observer is actually in the system. For each observation situation in this auto-ethnographic experience, the observer actively participates in the activities, observes and records the observed performance. In an attempt to establish a holistic view, the understanding of the VET structure would not be complete without physically participating in the system.

Moreover, this approach allows this project to start from a broad definition of research question, narrowing down to the focus of the research as it progressed, responding to the situations as they occurred and the experiences encountered. The auto-ethnographic role in this study has progressed from being a learner to a beauty therapist/make-up artist and a teacher, in order to recognise the vocational educational structure for nurturing beauty practitioners from different perspectives and positions. For instance, being a learner, the

perception toward the teaching and learning is very different compared to when the role of lecturer and assessor was taken up.

The purpose of investigating the UK VET structure is to explore how the UK nurtures beauty professionals and to learn from the UK experience. It was found that the inside knowledge of the UK's educational structure through reviewing literatures and documents was very limited. In order to have a better understanding of UK's VET structure, the strategy was initially to shadow lessons. After a couple of discussions with the project advisor, who was the Curriculum Area Manager (CAM) at the Hair and Beauty department in Leicester College, a programme was customised for the research to participate and observe the teaching and learning in the Hair and Beauty department across FE and HE sectors. Although the focus of the study is College-level graduates, it would help to gain the holistic picture of the training system across the board.

Auto-ethnography and/or ethnography was considered to be the best method in this research context, based on the previous educational background and work experience in Taiwan, even though Hammersley (2006) implies that this method is very time consuming. The fieldwork was carried out in Leicester College, which is a training centre of the Further and Higher Education sector. The staff and learners were informed, but they were not at all interested in what this study was about, just like the example Delamont (2004:209) took in his paper. It is important to note that this method was considered as an experience rather than a formal classical field study as Popkin & Stroll (1993:213) cited from Descartes' phrase "Knowledge derived from our sense experience." The reason for stating the position as an experience is because this approach is especially employed to equip a reliable and holistic understanding of the knowledge gained from the UK in order to review Taiwan's VET system for nurturing beauty practitioners/professionals. The approach also utilises the researcher's previous educational background and

work experiences in the field, to develop a narrative self-experience in a different cultural perspective.

This participant observation was progressed into three stages, namely participation in the activities as a learner; a practitioner; and a professional, as well as an observer in education and industry settings. There was no correct order and standard operating procedure as it happened as a natural occurrence. As Fetterman (2010) suggests, ethnographic work could be chaotic and the structure would not be in order, as the opportunities for observation, conversation or informal interview could occur any time when necessary. Sometimes, there is no script to follow and recognising the opportunity to seize is somewhat more important. Thus, the interviews were conducted in an unstructured and informal manner whenever the opportunities were available, to avoid the Hawthorne Effect - although there is some controversy about this effect (Adair 1984).

The term of Hawthorne Effect was derived from a side effect that appeared from a series of experiments of industrial studies in the Hawthorne plant in the 1920s. Today, it is used to imply that people often change their behaviour when they realise that they are being observed, examined or filmed (Brannigan & Swerman 2001). During this research, it was found that auto-ethnography could put the participants at ease, because the observer was part of the group. Also, observations were used to complement this field study. The observations are not only received through what we see or "through eyes of the ethnographer" as Krüger (2008:74) says, but also through the feeling of the atmosphere surrounding the auto-ethnographer and the interaction with other participants.

4.3.2.1 Auto-ethnographic experience as a learner

Auto-ethnographic experience as a learner to participate in the learning activities was undertaken as well as a participant observer. The learning

activities include attending classes, being assessed and interacting with the other learners. For this particular auto-ethnographic experience as a learner, other learners were also informed, but the majority of them had very little interest in this matter. Some of the learners, who were aware that there was an experiential researcher in the class, were involved in the informal interviews but some of the learners were not interested in knowing what was going on around them.

The people involved in these activities are curriculum and programme managers, lecturers/tutors, assessors and the peers within the learning groups. The groups involved in this study included Level 3 Beauty Therapy, Level 3 Artistic Make-up & Special Effects (FE sector) and HND Beauty Therapy (HE sector) from 2008 to 2009. At the time in 2008 in Leicester College, a foundation degree in Artist Make-up & Special Effects had just been launched: therefore, this participant observation was postponed until 2010 due to various concerns such as workload, time and finance.

Each group contained an average number of 13 to 16 learners. The age could be both between 16 – 18 years old and over 19 within one group in FE. HE learners generally are all over 19. The majority of learners in beauty and make-up are female. The ethnic groups are mainly British, British-Indian (Asian) and very few European, Black and Chinese (in the UK, people from East Asia are all classified as Chinese). Compared to Taiwan, there is more diversity in the context.

Overall, the auto-ethnography observations as a learner of other learners' learning attitude, lecturers' teaching and assessors' assessment approach at the time provoked a lot of thinking when the auto-ethnographic position changed.

4.3.2.2 Auto-ethnographic experience as a practitioner

The ethnographic experience as a practitioner began at the same time as that of a learner, due to the irregular working experience that UK's FE College

offered. There were some opportunities provided for the learners to gain real world work experiences while at the stage of learning. The hours of work experience for FE were not compulsory until 2013, when it became part of the study programme. For HE learners, work experience is part of their study.

The journey as a practitioner continued after the completion of the course. The industrial setting was at a local salon, theatres, location and studio shoots around the Midlands as an employee and freelance practitioner as a beauty therapist and make-up artist. The observation has set out to observe the service. The auto-ethnographic experience as a beauty practitioner in the beauty salon was permitted for two weeks only. During the time in the salon, all the duties and tasks allocated as a beauty therapist need to be completed. Observations of a few beauty therapists' performances were agreed after obtaining the agreement of the therapists and customers.

Apart from the observations, performing the treatment service as beauty practitioners on some occasions was also used to measure the gap between educational and industry. It was also a good opportunity to check if the skill set learned from education is recognised in industry.

4.3.2.3 Auto-ethnographic experience as a lecturer and an assessor

The auto-ethnographic experience as a lecturer and an assessor at a college in Leicester was arranged in order to broaden the perspective from different angles reflecting back to the time of as a learner. The viewpoints from the phase as a learner perceiving lecturers and assessors to being a lecturer and assessor observing learners are very different. It is not merely because of the position changed, but also the understanding of the system internally.

The teaching and assessing activities have taken place across FE and HE sectors. Learners' age could be divided into two categories: 16-18 and over 19. 16-18 year-old learners are mainly in the FE sector, while 19 plus could be both in FE and HE sectors. The content of observation involves the auto-

ethnographer's and other colleagues' teaching and learning activity and assessment process. The teaching and learning activities include the approach in teaching and the response in learning. The teaching preparation, delivery and monitoring learning are as a part of observation in teaching. The assessment occurred alongside the teaching and learning journey. The assessment approach, methods and procedure were observed, also incorporating the quality assurance procedure. The environmental setting is in the classrooms, which are used for theoretical delivery as well as practical training, called salon environment, lab or workshop.

4.3.3 Observation

Observation was useful to gather the first hand information that was studied (Mahoney 1997). Observation approach can be undertaken as a participant and non-participant in structured and unstructured settings (Grix 2010:130). Non-participant observation was carried out in a structured setting in Taiwan to identify the problems prior to the interviews, after participant observation embodied in the auto-ethnography in the UK, in order to bring a different standpoint to view Taiwan's beauty service. The focus of observation was clearly set on observing beauty practitioner's performance and service procedure based on the auto-ethnographic experience in the UK. The purpose of observing these two aspects are because they are the main tasks of the role as a beauty practitioner.

Initially, videotaping the service process was considered under the consensus between the company, participant and customer in Taiwan. After the pilot study, it was found that the interaction between beauty practitioner and the customer, who were observed, appeared behaving consciously during the filming. In addition, the manager was present monitoring the filming process due to the confidentiality of business. Subsequent observations were amended, making notes instead.

According to the purposive sampling strategy and the nature of the beauty industry in Taiwan, four observation settings were chosen. These were considered to be the common types of beauty business settings. They were:

- A salon attached to a beauty counter in a retail shop;
- a beauty salon that was part of a commercial salon chain;
- a beauty spa
- and a home-based/freelance/mobile salon.

The aim for the observations was to observe the service process: thus, the quantity of observations was not the concern for this research. Three observations were fully completed. The last one later changed their mind due to the issue of customer's privacy, which only allowed me to observe the consultation and care advice from a distance.

A set of steps and instrument was developed prior to the observations (see Appendix E). The observations were also guided by a structured protocol and checklist which was developed from performance criteria of the UK's National Occupational Standards (see Appendix I). The checklist includes the performance details of before, during and after treatment. At the end of observations, informal interviews, based around a structure of questions necessary to meet the research objective plus some ad hoc questions based upon the observations, were undertaken with the participant and the customer.

4.3.4 Interviews

Interviews could be used not only for formulating the research questions and objectives, but also to collect valid and consistent data (Saunders et al. 2000:242). The aim for the interview was to discover the inside knowledge from the experts in both education and industry sectors. For the education sector, the chairman of department and one or two experienced beauty lecturers were purposefully selected. Although the chairman of the department

may not directly be teaching in the field, the chairman is involved in the design of the curriculum and the path of the programmes within the department. For the selection of the interviewees within the beauty industry, the samples mainly focus on the experts involved in recruitment, education and management. It would be ideal if the interviewees are also in practice: most of them were in practice, but there was one who was purely a manager. The majority of interviewees are involved in more than one role. Some of them could be working in both education and industry as well as be still practising in industry.

The typologies of interviews could be categorised into three types of data collection method: 'structured', 'semi-structured' and 'unstructured' interviews (Neville 2007:19). Structured interviews are commonly seen in surveys and rarely used in qualitative research (Burgess 1982). The unstructured style of interview is very flexible and tends to start from general questions moving to probing questions: although this type allows the researcher to follow the interviewee's interest and thought, it would be depending on the interviewee's willingness (Ruane 2005). Therefore, the semi-structured interview has often been employed in qualitative research due to its flexibility. Dearnley (2005) reflected on the use of semi-structured interviews and identified several advantages and disadvantages of this method. The advantages of the method are its flexibility and openness, allowing the discussion to progress and for "new concepts to emerge". One of the disadvantages he identifies is the 'time' such as the time of the interview, the time for 'verbatim transcription' and for the time for confirming the transcripts to participants and so on.

In this study, the semi-structured approach was chosen for a data collecting method in Taiwan because of its flexibility in the process, as Dearnley states above. This concept of a semi-structured interview is very open and conversational. Although the open-ended questions for the semi-structured interviews were designed almost the same for both experts in education and industry, new questions might be generated during the discussion, which

depended on the interviewee's willingness to contribute. The benefit from keeping it open is because the variety of arguments from literature could be confirmed. Also, interestingly, each interviewee has shown their speciality in certain topics. For example, some interviewees have a variety of status in education, industry and their own professional practice, so they could discuss some viewpoints linking to the policies and organisations holistically. Therefore, the shortest interview was almost two hours and the longest was just over four hours.

The semi-structured interview has been carried out in two stages. The purpose of the first stage of interview is to identify the problems. A model was proposed based on the findings from the first stage of interview. The second stage of interview was carried out for evaluating the model.

In the first stage of interviews, questions for experts in education and industry were divided into six parts (see Appendix M and N):

Part 1: basic information includes structure of organisations, brief summary of the professional's background such as the years of experience in their specialised field and so forth. There was only slight difference in questions between two sectors in order to be fit for the purpose.

Part 2: an overview of current trends in the beauty sector and the value of beauty business.

Part 3: to rate the gap between education and training, on a scale from one as ineffective interaction and 10 as effective interaction between education and training. Also, to recognise and evaluate their current approaches of interacting with education or industry.

Part 4: to identify and evaluate their current approaches of professional development.

Part 5: a list of competences, which was sub-divided into three categories - knowledge, attribute and skill - as the literature review suggested (See Chapter

2). It required the experts to rank the importance on the list of competences. There were sixty components in total. The scale was from 1 to 3, with one as the least important and three as the most important.

Part 6: to forecast the future trends of the beauty sector.

The only different part of the interview questions for both experts in education and industry is the basic information. The basic information request for the education sector is about the structure of the institution/industry, such as type, the name of the faculty/programme, interviewer's area of expertise and years of engaging in the area of expertise. Whereas, the basic information request from industrial sector is, apart from the type of industry, the number of employees in their establishment, the basic requirement for the level of qualification, professional background and the years of relevant work experience. The rest of the parts were the same, so they could be compared.

The second stage of interview was designed based on the findings from the first stage of interview. The questions are refined and narrowed down to confirm the first stage of interview results. Also, the model developed from the first stage of research finding was tested. The second stage of interview was divided into five parts (see Appendix O and P).

Part one: basic information, which stayed the same as the first one.

Part two: an open question, which required the experts to state three of the most important core knowledge, skill and attribute competences the beauty professional must possess.

Part three: a list of competences, which was sub-divided into three categories - knowledge, attribute and skill - as the literature review suggested (See Chapter 2) and the feedback from the first stage of interviews. It required the experts to rank the importance on the list of competences. There were sixty components in total. The scale was from 1 to 7, with one as the least important and seven as the most important.

Part four: model testing including the Service model and Work Placement model

It is a challenge to decide the sample size and suggestions on the sample size are varied. "Research that is field oriented in nature and not concerned with statistical generalizability often uses non-probabilistic samples" (Guest et al. 2006:61). It was also argued by Lester (1999) that this type of research contains more parameters, so that it should not be validated by the quantity of the sample size, as people tend to link the reliability with the number of samples. However, Guest et al. (2006) also brought up the concern that twelve interviews would not be sufficient if the heterogeneity of the sample group is high (2006:79).

Due to the level of discussion, the interview questions were emailed to the interviewees prior the interviews. The location, where was convenient and where they feel comfortable to be in, for the interviews was chosen by the interviewees. The interview duration was on average two to three hours depending on the flow of conversation. The consent form for being interviewed and audio recording was also obtained before the interview started.

The questions, for interviewing both educational and industrial experts, are designed in a similar fashion, which leaves the flexibility to fit into the different subjects. Nevertheless, the competence rating component of the interview was set out exactly the same across two groups in order to be compared. The questions are designed as open-ended and they were also encouraged to talk about their experience, so further questions may be generated according to their responses.

The expectation of competence from educational experts and the requirement of competence from industrial experts was cross-analysed. The difference between expectation from educational experts and requirement from industrial experts could be compared. This comparison could expose the gap between

education and industry. The reason for this comparison is to explore the understanding of the competence required for the relevant jobs.

The reason for employing this tool is because knowledge of this field is sparse. Although one-to-one face-to-face interviews are very time consuming, it allows the interviewee to talk freely and its flexibility could encourage unforeseen data to emerge. Another important reason for adopting semi-structured interviews is because some of the interviewees could be classified as education and industrial experts and/or a practitioner/professional: in other words, some of them are still practising in industry either as a freelance practitioner or as an instructor in private sector while part-time teaching at in the education sector.

One of the limitations is that the practitioners/professionals may not be able to represent all the jobs in the beauty sector, but it could explain the certain competences required for particular types of the job. It would be expected that there are certain levels of overlap between beauty related jobs, which may tend to add weight to the applicability of the research's data. In addition, the transcripts are primarily transcribed into Chinese and then translated into English. It is inevitable that some of the meanings may be lost in translation, but every effort has been made to avoid this. Also, the broad experience of the researcher probably allowed for a more accurate interpretation than might have been the case with someone less experienced in using the two languages within a single context.

4.3.4.1 Characteristics of interviewees

The characteristics of interviewees for both stages will be briefly introduced together here as some experts have participated in both stages of interview. Also, some experts have both education and industry experience. Although there is no particular definition for educational experts, they are normally qualified with a certain level of qualification and years of work experience to be able to teach in educational institutions in Taiwan. According to the definition of

industrial expert identified by Taiwanese government, as long as there meet one of four criteria, they can be classified as industrial experts. These are (MOE 2010b):

1. College-level of graduates locally or internationally with five-year work experience in the field or ten-year work experience in the field,
2. Has been the candidate, coach, judge in the national level of professional competition,
3. Has been awarded the national medal or certificate in the professional competition,
4. Others who can hold the post identified by the institution.

The expert interview of education was aiming at HTVE level is because upgrading the qualifications to HE level has become a trend in Taiwan since the education policy has been deregulated (see Section 2.3.1 – Taiwan education). The interviewees were restricted to the chairman and teaching staff of the beauty department at Higher Technological Vocational Education institutions (HTVEs), the vocational route of Higher Education, in Taiwan. The chairman of the beauty department, who is in charge of curriculum and work placement scheme and one lecturer, as a minimum, were interviewed at each selected institution. The chairman of the department may or may not have a relevant background in beauty and the position of chairman of the beauty department is equivalent to the head of department in HE or Curriculum Area manager in FE in the UK. The lecturer was selected randomly, but they must be teaching in beauty related programmes. Hairdressing teachers were excluded.

Also, the lecturers selected for the expert interview must have work experience in the field for more than 5 years. Two third of interviewees have more than fifteen years work experience in the field. One third of them have less than 10 years, but over 5 years' work experience. Meanwhile, the industrial experts may not all possess a degree qualification, but they were owners, managers or instructors, who are also in charge of recruitment and staff training in either

their own private school or companies. On the whole, the majority of the educational experts or industrial experts are working as an instructor/trainer in both education and industry and some of them were still in practice.

There were only two educational experts from the previous stage that could attend and the rest were new from other institutions. Each institution has the chairman of the department and one lecturer from the department. The department was chosen from the programmes of cosmetics science, cosmetology and styling design, applied cosmetology and fashion and styling design. Three out of five chairmen are not working in the beauty field, but they were managing the programme. The other two have a strong industry background. The majority of interviewees are only working in institutes as they are not encouraged to work outside of academia if they are full-time. Some of them are part-time and also have been working in industry for a long period of time.

The second stage of interview was carried out after the analysis from the first stage of interview. There were only five industrial experts from the first stage of interview that could be interviewed again at the second stage of interview. Therefore, other new interviewees joined the second stage of interviews. The new interviewees were professional, manager of a Cosmetic company and a Spa and a director of salon chain, who had also strong industrial background before setting up the beauty business.

In total, there were fifteen interviewees within seventeen interviews that were carried out for the beauty education sector in Taiwan. In addition, there were twelve interviewees within seventeen interviews with different beauty industrial settings (cosmetic clinic, spa, salon chain, beauty counter and home-based beauty salon) serving similar services. In other words, some people were interviewed at both stages. A total of 38 semi-structured interviews including 34 interviews (16 at the first stage interview and 18 at the second stage interview) and 4 pilot studies were carried out within two groups of subjects.

	Stage one				Stage two			
	No. code	Unit	Position	Sector crossed	No. code	Unit	Position	Sector crossed
Education sector	EE01	Institute A	CAM	E	EE01	Institute A	CAM	E
	EE02	Institute A	Lecture	E	EE07	Institute D	Lecturer	E&P
	EE03	Institute A	Lecture	E	EE09	Institute E	CAM	E
	EE04	Institute B	CAM	E	EE10	Institute E	Lecture/ Development consultant in Industry	E&I&P
	EE05	Institute B	Lecture	E	EE11	Institute F	CAM	E
	EE06	Institute C	Lecturer/ Development consultant in Industry	E&I&P	EE12	Institute F	Lecture	E
	EE07	Institute D	Lecturer	E&P	EE13	Institute G	CAM	E
	EE08	Institute D	CAM	E&I	EE14	Institute G	Lecture	E
					EE15	Institute H	Vice CAM	E
Industry sector	IE01	Beauty counter in retail shop	Owner	I&P	IE01	Beauty counter in retail shop	Owner	I&P
	IE02	Aesthetic Clinic	Manager	E&I	IE02	Aesthetic Clinic	Manager	I
	IE03	Freelance	Instructor/ Development consultant/practitioner	E&I&P	IE03	Freelance	Instructor/ Development consultant/practitioner	E&I&P
	IE04	Spa	Instructor/HR	E&I	IE04	Spa	Instructor/HR	E&I
	IE05	Cosmetic Company and Beauty salon chain	Director	E&I&P	IE05	Cosmetic Company and Beauty salon chain	Director	E&I&P
	IE06	Cosmetic company	Trainer/ Instructor	E&I	IE09	Spa	Professional	I&P
	IE07	Private sector (Beauty school)	Director	E&I&P	IE10	Cosmetic company	Regional Leader/Trainer	E&I&P
	IE08	Cosmetic Company	Director	I	IE11	Spa	Manager	P
					IE12	Beauty salon chain	Director	I&P

Table 4-1 List of interviewees: EE means Educational Experts and IE stands for Industrial Experts[19]

[19] 'E' indicates that the interviewee was working in the education sector; 'I' refers that the interviewee is working in industry sector; P means the interviewee was still practising at the time of the interview. Some interviewees have worked across all three: thus, which sector was the centre of their career determines whether they are in the category of education or industry experts. 'CAM' is an acronym for Curriculum Area Manager, which of position is equivalentto the chairman of the department in Taiwan.

4.3.4.2 Pilot study

A pilot study is a small trial of a method as a guide to a large scale study. This has applied to both observations and interviews. The purpose of a pilot study is to detect the deficiencies, assess the feasibility of the method and to improve its effectiveness (Thabane et al. 2010; NC3Rs 2006). This includes the practicality of implementing a study as well as testing the tools for collecting data such as observation and interview.

Both observation and interview methods are piloted and analysed to ensure that the data collected could address the research questions and the methods proposed are feasible to employ. Modifications may apply after the first pilot study. If a substantial change needs to be made, then a second round of the pilot study will be re-arranged to test the methods. Otherwise, data from the pilot study would be included in the data obtained from other interviews.

The samples in the second round of the pilot study after the modification from the first round would be included in the data collection if there are no substantial changes in the second round of the pilot study. However, if there were any substantial changes needed to be made after the second round of the pilot, additional participants and interviewees would be recruited.

This process of adaptation to the pilot study was applied, with two rounds of pilot in the UK before the research visit to Taiwan, followed by a further pilot in Taiwan.

The approach of observation evolved from filming to purely taking notes as the researcher's experience gave a strong indication that the participant and the client appeared acting and behaving unnaturally. In addition, the company's manager was concerned that the footage may involve any commercial value or/and business confidentiality, although the consent form had been agreed and signed.

4.3.4.3 Semi-structured interviews with educational experts

The purpose of interviewing educational experts is to discover the competence that the graduates were expected to possess when entering job market. This section can be used to measure the understanding of the job market from the educational experts' perspective and to compare the variation between the expectation of education and the requirements of industry.

The research setting of the study focuses on College-level of beauty graduates in Taiwan. The institutions in higher vocational education sectors were chosen from the north, middle and south of Taiwan. The programmes were mainly chosen were cosmetic science and cosmetology and styling due to the fact that these two are the most popular and the main stream of beauty programmes in Taiwan. Those beauty educational programmes in Taiwan seem to be considered very heterogeneous, but they actually contain a high homogeneous component based on the modules (See Appendix H). There were two interviews including the chairman of the department and one lecturer who specialised in beauty or/and make-up in each institution (see Table 4-1). Table 4-1 shows that there were eight educational experts who agreed to be interviewed at the first stage of interview. There were nine interviewees joined the second stage of interview. Some of the interviewees from the first stage were unavailable; therefore, seven of interviewees were contacted from other institutions apart from two of them from the previous interview.

4.3.4.4 Semi-structured interviews with industrial experts

The types of the beauty industry particularly in Taiwan could be divided into three main categories: cosmetic company, salon setting and freelance/mobile. In Taiwan, the marketing strategy of cosmetic companies such as Shiseido, SKII, KOSÉ and so forth has strategically penetrated into many different types of outlet in Taiwan, which has not been commonly seen in the UK. The cosmetic companies have established their beauty counters in department stores and retail shops from cities to rural areas. As to the salon setting, it

includes salon chains, single beauty salons and spas. Freelance/mobile settings could be home-based and/or provide service at the client's place.

Seven industrial experts were recruited at the first stage of interview and four of them also agreed to be interviewed at the second stage. The other five interviewees were newly recruited for the second stage. The sample was selected at the professional level according to suggested level of qualification and years of work experience by the Taiwanese government (see Section 5.3.1.2). The interviewees were managers in human resources of cosmetic companies/salons/medical cosmetics clinic and owners/directors/instructors/trainers in the beauty related industries. In addition, some of them were in charge of two to three different roles. For instance, a couple of interviewees were in charge of recruitment, training and R&D (Research and Development). Some of the managers were also in charge of day-to-day operation of the business.

In addition, informal discussions with practitioners were undertaken on the visit to Taiwan, discussing their learning experience, work placements, skill certification and the relevance of what was learnt for their work practice.

4.4 Analytical approach

The analysis of qualitative data is a process of collection, extraction and formation. Chang (2010) proposes a model of five steps for qualitative analysis including "transcribing, conceptualising, propositionalising, graphing and theorising" (p88). There are four types of analysis of documents: content analysis, conversation analysis, narrative analysis and discourse analysis; they overlap each other and but also have their own distinctiveness (Grbich 2007:109). In view of the huge data from various documents, interview transcripts and field notes, a thematic analytical approach in the content analysis was adopted.

4.4.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis has been widely employed in qualitative research, which is considered as a form of content analysis. Grbich (2007) lists the techniques of content analysis, including enumerative, combined or thematic. Initially, content analysis was used to deal with "the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (Berelson 1952:18). However, content analysis has been implemented in inductive study (Mayring 2000), which has become a common method of qualitative analysis.

Content analysis is also identified as an efficient tool to simplify large documents using methodical coding and a categorising approach that can be used when qualitative data has been composed through interviews, focus groups, observation and documentary analysis (Graneheim & Lundman 2004; Elo & Kyngäs 2007). Content analysis was used to code and categorise the content of large documents collected from organisational documents and interviews. The features of enumerative analysis are to count the percentage of the repeated word in the text, rank the ordering of the words and highlight the key words in the context (Grbich 2007). Subsequently, thematic analysis could be further used to explain and explore the meaning of the words, phrases, sentences and/or paragraphs used through codes and themes (Graneheim & Lundman 2004). It can be seen that enumerative and thematic analysis could be both used for interpreting the data (Alhojailan 2012). Grbich (2007:120) further explains that

> *"this approach involves the use of both enumerative and narrative descriptive data, bringing together the categorisation and typologising of written text, images, responses to open-ended questions and systematic observations in context."*

Therefore, the patterns, trends, themes and relationships between them would emerge through the coding process.

Thematic analysis is one of the practices of content analysis, also known as a "classic content analysis" (Guest et al. 2012:7), defined as: "A method for

identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data" (Braun & Clarke 2006:79). Thematic analysis was employed as an analysis tool for coding a detailed description of data, which has been widely used in qualitative research. The process of coding data is to focus on the repeated and particular words and group them together into a theme. Consequently, the difference between content analysis and thematic analysis could be distinguished in the order of the coding process. Content analysis normally occurs at the initial stage of coding process with more quantifiable measurement and thematic analysis could be further used to categorise the similar codes into themes (Elo & Kyngäs 2007). The relationship between words, key words, categories and themes could be explored and interpreted. However, Graneheim & Lundman (2004) acknowledge the necessity of employing different analytical tools for different purposes in context.

All the data collected from Taiwan and the UK will be analysed mainly using thematic analysis through coding system. Thematic analysis is one of the analytical approaches that could be used for ethnographic types of methodology (Aronson 1994), as one of the strengths associated with thematic analysis is that it allows for subjective analysis and other participants' viewpoints. In addition, its flexibility allows thematic analysis to be applied to any study that seeks to discover using interpretations and to the data produced through interviews, focus groups, ethnographic, observations and documentary data. Although some researchers have emphasised the importance of analysing the body language such as posture, sighs, laughs, this body language may not cause any obvious impact on this study apart from some particular reactions towards responding to some specific questions, which would be addressed in Chapter 5 data analysis.

In this case, thematic analysis was adopted as it is an approach of organising narratives into themes. In this case, it could prevent subjective perspective when interpreting the data. Particularly for thematic analysis, validity has to be

measured at as early a stage as possible, so that the reliability could be established at the later stage of data analysis (Fereday & Muir-cochrane 2006; Alhojailan 2012).

Certainly, thematic analysis has its limitations too. The limitation of using thematic analysis is mainly that it lacks a clear guideline of what should be coded into themes effectively; it is very time consuming by reading data repeatedly and it is difficult to maintain the sense of continuity as they were broken down into themes. In other words, it heavily relies on the researcher's capability in the field to recognise key information.

In this study, two stages of coding process in terms of thematic analysis were considered as an appropriate analysis approach, considering this study contains large interview transcripts and documents such as government funding projects, units of National Occupational Standard, beauty programme specifications and so on. The first stage of coding relies on the repetition of words and phrases in the documents, which has indicated the importance of actions in the process of service and shown the level of competence. The codes have been categorised into different nodes. Nodes were created to store the data being coded as a category. Under each node, more sub-nodes could be created as a sub-category. This will be explained further in the next section 3.6.2 coding. The themes emerged through the nodes generated at the second stage of coding. Once the themes emerged, the relationship between the themes and ideas were explored and reviewed to engender a theme map in order to produce a report based on the themes identified.

Although auto-ethnography was employed to understand UK's nurturing system, it was not a personal biography as previously stated (Section 4.3.2). The personal feeling or journey is discussed in the study. Auto-ethnography was a tool used to experience in order to understand a complex system. Thematic analysis could be also applied to narratives of personal experience (Riessman 2005). Similarly, Grbich (2007:68) states that

> *"Ethnographic content analysis is used to document and understand the communication of meaning, as well as to verify theoretical relationship. Its distinctive characteristic is the reflexive and highly interactive nature of the investigator, concepts, data collection and analysis."*

Thus, the strategy of using thematic analysis in narratives of personal experience focuses on the content rather than a story.

4.4.2 Coding

The data coding process is one of the important parts of qualitative research. No matter what type of data was collected or generated, the coding process will remain the same (Birks & Mills 2011:9). Lester (1999:2) notes that "…data doesn't tend to fall into neat categories and there can be many ways of linking between different parts of discussions or observations." The large and messy data could be problematic for this type of research, therefore, the coding process followed the guidance suggested by Birks and Mills (2011) that the first stage of data needs to be broken down into words and phrases and then organised into categories at the second stage of data analysis. Once the data is placed into categories, a core category might be identified to illuminate the generated theory.

Coding can be developed into stages: open coding and intermediate coding (Birks & Mills 2011:9 & 11). Using open coding by identifying key words or clusters of words to label them into categories is the first step of data analysis, followed by adapting intermediate coding to further group categories together. In order to achieve the coding process systematically, a computer software package, NVivo, a Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) package created by QSR (Liu & Zeng 2013; Hilal & Alabri 2013), was chosen to manage, store and assist the analysis of qualitative data. It is important to note that NVivo is a tool used to manage and store the data, not to analyse the data. The researcher is the one to analyse the data with its systematic support. Once the data is imported into the NVivo, the text is coded in detail and then those codes are categorised into

nodes (QSR 2002). The genres of node include free node and tree node in the software. Free nodes provide the unordered categories and tree nodes show a hierarchy of nodes. The nodes can also be levelled up into parent nodes and child nodes. The themes could emerge through the nodes created. One of the most important functions is linking the data to explore the relationships between the themes and ideas in a project. However, the discursive nature of the interviews and conversational style meant that further structuring of these results was needed. Therefore, a broader analysis was presented according to the categories of interview questions. An example of tree map generated through NVivo analysis is given in Appendix N.

4.4.3 Radar diagrams

Radar diagrams/charts/graphs, also known as spider/web/star charts, are a two-dimensional representation applied to present multi-dimensional values through axes for each parameter (Schappert & Wians 2006; Odds 2011). This type of graph has been widely used for a variety of data presentation, such as Healthcare (Saary 2008), competence management (Pareto & Snis 2007), performance (Schappert & Wians 2006), education (Willey & Gardner 2010), business (Palmer & Millier 2004), design and so forth. As previously mentioned, there was a ranking of the skills, knowledge and attributes required for competence embedded in the semi-structured interviews of experts in the two stakeholder fields of beauty education and the beauty industry. The three categories considered are knowledge, skills and attributes, while these categories contain 60 components (Appendix F and G).

These components were extracted from the beauty textbooks mentioned in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.2.3.1, 2.5 and footnote 19), the Concept of Employability published by McQuaid & Lindsay (2005), some existing literatures related to beauticians' (Xu 1996) and salon managers' competence (Huang 2003) and from the NOS performance criteria. The selection of its usability were based on the requirements for fulfilling the job role.

The experts were required to rank the importance of particular skills, knowledge and attributes. The ranking scale ranges from one to seven: one is the least important and seven is the most important. The educational experts were asked what their expectations of the possession of competence were for college graduates: whereas, the industrial experts were asked about the required competence for college graduates. The radar diagrams were used to analyse and compare the interviewees' expectations/requirements for competence.

4.5 Evaluation of methodology

Traditionally, a good quality of research would be certified by its validity and reliability, though it is clear that there is no perfect research. With the increasing complexity of research, confirming the quality in research has become more important, in addition to developing a rational research design and selecting appropriate research methods. In order to meet the diversity of research styles, there is also a consensus of good quality in research that could be measured by using various methods (Golafshani 2003; Cameron 2011), aiming for validity, reliability, generalizability and objectivity (Tracy 2010; Cameron 2011). These criteria are commonly used for scrutinising quantitative research and mixed method (both quantitative and qualitative) research.

In terms of qualitative research, quite a few guidelines and checklists provide various criteria for researchers to assess its quality (Kmet et al. 2004; Cameron 2011; Tracy 2010). For instance, Tracy (2010:16) proposes eight criteria: "worthy topic, rich rigour, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant contribution, ethical and meaningful coherence" for evaluating a qualitative study. The ranges covered are not only evaluating the primary sources, but also a consideration for reviewing the quality of the entire research, which could be used throughout the study. Also, Meyrick (2006) places emphasis on the importance of 'transparency' and 'systematicity' with 'reflexivity' throughout the research process and analysis to guard the relationship between the researcher and the data.

In the assessing the concept of quality for interpretivist research, implementing the broadly recognised criteria of "credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability" is suggested by Lincoln & Guba (1985). This set of four criteria for evaluating the quality of this research is because these four are closely correlated and the evaluation techniques overlap each other to determine the trustworthiness of qualitative research, which has been widely cited, discussed and applied (Cameron 2011; Tracy 2010; Hannes 2011; Suter 2012; Thomas & Shields 2007; Thomas 2006; Golafshani 2003). Overall, these criteria reflect a certain degree of measurement of validity and reliability, but the criteria that need to be selected to measure the quality of research depend on the type and purpose of the research.

There are two indications of validity, which are internal and external validity (Cheng 2010). Internal validity refers to the credibility of the data. In qualitative terms, credibility is equivalent to internal validity (Cameron 2011; Hannes 2011), which relies on the evidence in the study to infer the truth. Credibility can be used to indicate the trustworthiness in terms of qualitative data analysis (Suter 2012), while trustworthiness in the research has been used to establish credibility, transferability and dependability of the qualitative data and findings (Graneheim & Lundman 2004; Andrew & Halcomb 2009:xvii). The evaluating techniques, that have been used for establishing credibility, include prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation (Cameron 2011; RWJF 2008). The term of thick description is derived from Gilbert Ryle, indicating "Thinking and Reflecting" and "The Thinking of Thoughts" (Geertz 1973:312). Thick description "is composed of facts, commentary, interpretation, interpretation of those comments and interpretation" (Geertz 1973:312). Chang (2010) cited from Geertz that ethnography is a type of thick description and ethnographers unravel the intricate meaning of culture. Tracy (2010) further explains that ethnography's level of detail and multiple data sources should provide a complex and in-depth understanding of the issue to meet the criteria

of thick description. Ethnography is a collective term for a genre of similar research methods such as auto-ethnography (Section 4.3.2).

In addition to thick description, triangulation is another important criteria to indicate qualitative credibility and transferability of data (Hannes 2011:4; Tracy 2010:843). There are five types of triangulation: "data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, methodological triangulation and environmental triangulation" (Guion et al. 2011: 2). In this study, data and methodological triangulation are well suited to certify credibility, dependability and confirmability of the research. The multiple qualitative methods used are interview, observation and document analysis: which is a triangulation of methods. Additional triangulation may be achieved through the analysis of documents from the government, industry and education sectors and interviewing experts from education and industry sectors as these provide a variety of sources, as well as experts in different roles within education and industry.

External validity means that researchers can effectively describe the feelings and experiences expressed by the participants of the study. External validity is referred to as evidence of generalisation as well as having transferability ((Trochim 2006) - Research Methods Knowledge Base). In qualitative terms, Cameron (2011) and Hannes (2011) explain that transferability is preferable to external validity, which requires that the findings can be replicated to other situations and contexts. Transferability also can be referred to as generalisability/ applicability (Golafshani 2003; Hannes 2011; Cameron 2011; Tracy 2010) and be embodied through achieving 'resonance' among readers and the findings can also be replicated to other contexts, settings and situations (Tracy 2010). Alternatively, Denzin (1989) argued that replicating the findings is not necessarily the case in qualitative research, as the reality to which methods are applied is constantly changing. Thick description can also be used for evaluating transferability (Cameron 2011).

Lincoln & Guba (1985) also suggest that good qualitative research is also dependable. Dependability also refers to reliability in quantitative terms, evaluates the rationality of the research process and documentation of the methods employed through triangulation, reflexivity, peer review and so forth, in order for the consistency of data to be scrutinised and replicated (Cameron 2011; Hannes 2011; Zohrabi 2013). Other criteria for examining dependability are the researcher's reflexive practice, in addition to using triangulation, as previously mentioned.

The concern of qualitative research is its subjectivity and the bias of the researcher's perspective. Confirmability is the criterion to evaluate the research findings through analysing the effect of the research process and ensuring that the results are a true reflection of the occurrences. Also, a researcher's experience can be classified as part of the data: moreover, in such circumstances the pre-existing knowledge of the researcher can be advantageous to the research. Also, the researcher's reflexivity can be used to examine the confirmability in the research (Hannes 2011:4; Cameron 2011).

Although reliability is directly related to the validity, validity is considered more important than reliability. "Validity requires that an instrument is reliable, but an instrument can be reliable without being valid" (Kimberlin & Winterstein 2008: 2278). However, validity and reliability are still commonly used as an indicator for assuring a good quality of research.

Based on the criteria for quality checks in research discussed above, Table 4-2 shows the relevant evaluation techniques embedded in this research methodology and can be evaluated to confirm whether the criteria of quality have been met. The research methods used for data collection in Taiwan and the UK involve auto-ethnographic experience of the UK, which contains participant observations and informal interviews, and observations and interviews in Taiwan. The elements such as thick description, persistent observation, prolonged engagement at sites (salon, college, etc.), triangulation,

reflexivity and so forth overlap in the methods used to validate one and another. In terms of document analysis for both Taiwan and the UK, the sources will be detailed in Section 5.2.1 and 5.3.1.

	Credibility	Transferability	Dependability	Confirmability
Thick description	✓	✓		
Persistent observation	✓			
Prolonged engagement at sites*	✓			
Triangulation	✓		✓	✓
Reflexivity			✓	✓
Various methods			✓	
Expert interviews	✓	✓		
Researcher's background information				✓

* Where a site is a location of the research e.g. a salon, education institutions etc.

Table 4-2: Matrix of data quality attributes (evaluated by the researcher for the study)

Throughout the study, the central framework is based on a concept of lens comparison. Lens comparison is used to review Taiwan's nurturing system of beauty professionals through the lens of the UK's system. Therefore, to understand how the UK nurtures beauty professionals would be the first step of the primary research. A good quality of research cannot be achieved without self-reflexivity. According to Lincoln & Guba (1985), confirmability specifies the measurement of the findings through self-reflexivity, to ensure the possibility of personal bias is excluded, using triangulation or peer review to ensure the findings are authentic and the perspectives are neutral. Utilising self-reflexivity to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the research process is an effective means of assessing the data to ensure that the data collection process and methods are rational. With different data collection methods used in both Taiwan and the UK, the quality control appeared rather challenging.

With regard to the approach used in the UK, auto-ethnographic experience involves participating activities, observation and informal interviews on site. In order to ensure its credibility and transferability, prolonged engagement on site and persistent observation were required during the auto-ethnography period. The findings were examined by engaging in different roles (learner,

practitioner, lecturer and assessor) as well as being an observer to ensure consistency through triangulation. Kefting (1990) suggested that true value could be enhanced via the researcher spending sufficient time to identify the pattern. Also, the dependability and transferability could be achieved via the use of triangulation to view identical elements of competence through multiple perspectives of a learner, practitioner, lecturer and assessor. The methodological approach used in the UK presented a challenge to switch roles between a learner/practitioner/lecturer/assessor and an observer, throughout the auto-ethnographic experience in the UK. The cause of this was the possibility of being intensely involved in some circumstances, such as dealing with learners' behaviour and the stress from the workload: therefore, when participating in the activity, it would be possible to overlook what should be observed. The only way to overcome this is to reflect upon what has happened. However, only relevant details would be addressed in the study. Also, it has to be recognised that the perspective changed when the role and position shifted. But, the principle technique used to accommodate these various circumstances was through self-reflection.

Although the issue of subjectivity was embraced in this 'self-as-instrument' approach, a very important element of being objective is to include other participants' voices of their experience. The cultural shock experienced through the auto-ethnography provoked a lot of thinking based on the previous auto-ethnographic experience of the beauty field in Taiwan. The comparison of differences such as teaching and learning, assessment approaches, attitudes and so on between Taiwan and the UK constantly transpired. The impact was not only to this study, but also to the researcher as a practitioner.

The position of the researcher as an auto-ethnographer in the study has been mentioned earlier in this chapter, such that the centre of the study is not about auto-ethnographer's personal feeling or experience: whereas, the experience gained through the process of 'being one of them' is used to understand the

approach of nurturing professionals. Furthermore, the findings were focused on the phenomena the auto-ethnographer comprehended rather than describing the sense of personal feeling. Any feeling described here would be only applied to understand other participants' feelings in terms of the training received and given. Equally important, is that language limitations should be considered as this could affect the data collection and interpretation of the phenomena in verbal and written forms. However, the repeated exposure to each environment (learner, lecturer etc.) also improved familiarity with the use of language, terminology and so forth. Also, this was complemented by persistent observation and prolonged engagement at each site.

It might be questioned whether the institutions chosen could represent the whole of the UK's practice. Auto-ethnography requires the researcher's physical involvement, so it is physically impossible to employ auto-ethnography elsewhere at the same time. Although the practice of the beauty education might appear slightly different from one institution to another, the practice is not supposed to be hugely dissimilar under the same government policies and structure. Moreover, there is a considerable degree of mobility between institutions by the FE lecturers and assessors, as well as frequent CPD training events at which beauty lecturers from other institutions visit and mix. In addition, several lecturers at these colleges were working at more than one institution. Furthermore, the Ofsted inspection report for 12 institutions (including the sampled college) did not highlight any notable issues or significant atypical characteristics (Ofsted 2009). This indicates that the institutions chosen are likely to be reasonably typical.

Meanwhile, document analysis was carried out alongside the auto-ethnography. The documents were collected from both Taiwan and the UK, including various sources such as government reports, funding projects, beauty curriculum and programme specifications, in order to verify the data from observations and interviews. Not only can such documents collected from Taiwan and the UK be

compared, but also the different styles can be seen. For example, Taiwan's institutions and organisations are more bureaucratic and policies are more ambiguous. The documents are more open access in the UK than in Taiwan, which makes the collection of the latter more difficult, in addition to the translation issue.

The observations at the workplace, in Taiwan, were inevitably affected by the experience and knowledge gained during the time in the UK beauty education sector. This allowed an alternative and more objective viewpoint of the performance of the procedures than would have been the case if the research had only been undertaken in beauty education and the beauty industry in Taiwan. In order to ensure that the measurement of the criteria is equally reliable cross the workplaces, the observation checklist (see Appendix E) was developed from the UK NOS, as a benchmark to review Taiwan's beauty practices.

Also, semi-structured interviews were mainly carried out with experts in both education and industry in Taiwan. The definition of 'expert' is varied and cannot be defined using professional standards such as nursing, medical, healthcare or social professions and suchlike. Higher education in beauty has only been established and properly promoted for just over a decade, so the majority of experts may not hold a higher level of qualification in beauty. However, the possession of higher education qualifications was included in the criteria of holding relevant qualifications and/or at least more than five years work experience in the relevant field of beauty. In this case, holding relevant qualifications will not be an essential criterion, but the experience in the relevant field will be considered. Due to the difficulties of defining an expert, particularly in the beauty sector, the experts interviewed could cross both the education and industry sectors: in other words, they could be lecturing in HE whilst also working as a professional in the industry, or as an instructor in the private sector. Some interviewees were working as an industrial trainer and

recruitment person and/or a professional in practice. That is the diverse nature of employment in the beauty industry.

There is a small quantitative element in the qualitative study: therefore, the measurement for this instrument needs to be briefly addressed. The instrument used for Taiwan was an open-ended interview questions with rating scales. In terms of quantitative measurement, there are four recognised levels of measurement: nominal, ordinal, internal and ratio level of measurement (Ruane 2005:52). The choice between them depends on the number and the value of variables in the course of measurement. The level of measurement chosen was based on the purpose of the instrument: thus, it was considered appropriate to use an ordinal level of measurement for identifying the components of skills, knowledge and attributes required for competence. From the pilot study, it was found that it is difficult to distinguish the importance with a narrow scale, although it was easier for the interviewees to respond to the question. So, the rating scale for each competence was expanded from 1-3 to 1-7 to validate the number and its value following the pilot study. After the modification of the scale, the difference in views was distinguishable.

In addition, at the first stage of interview, the value of variables, such as qualifications, years of work experience in the field and current working pattern, for beauty practitioners was tested in the pilot study. It was found that the education qualification has limited impact to the beauty sector. Therefore, it was modified at the second stage of interview, but the years of experience may still have some correlations with qualifications held. Also, some of the interviewees have been working across sectors of education and industry, which is explained in the section on interviews (Section 4.3.4.1 or Table 4-1). In other words, they could provide a more informed and holistic viewpoint, in terms of the competence required from graduates.

In the pilot study, the researcher's auto-ethnographic experience informed the initial choice of questions to ask interviewees, in order to gather data

representative of the breadth and depth of information required to meet the research objectives. In this study, the researcher's position has been clearly justified in Chapter 1. The purpose of clarifying the researcher's position is not to extricate the study from the possibility of subjectivity, as it is embraced in this study, but to highlight that the reflexive practice is occurring on a daily basis. According to Lincoln & Guba (1985), confirmability specifies the measurement of the study through self-reflexivity, using triangulation or peer review to ensure the findings are authentic and the perspectives are neutral. Through self-reflexivity it is possible to identify the strengths and weakness of the research process as an effective way of assessing risks to the data.

4.6 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues are important when it comes to interacting with people. Ethical approval for this study was obtained from Faculty of Art and Design Human Research Ethics Committee, at De Montfort University. The university policy states that research involving human subjects should ensure the participants were fully informed about their rights including the important details of the study, their right to participate and withdraw, the confidentiality of their personal information, written consent record and so on (DMU 2014).

In addition, ethics in research could also be embodied in self-reflexivity (Tracy 2010:846). It was found that the most valuable data was collected without participants' awareness in a natural setting. In other words, while participating in daily activities with other participants, other participants could easily remove their guard. However, data collected in such circumstances is still subject to the code of ethics outlined above.

The interviews with experts were arranged with beauty educational institutions, and industry. The subjects for interviews were recruited from both educational and industrial sectors. The purpose and procedure of the interviews were explained clearly prior the interview and was carried out with permission from

the interviewees. The interviewees would have the opportunity to view the interview questions prior the interview. On the day, the consent form was completed, including obtaining the consent for auto recording. The interviewees were informed that they had an option to decide whether they would like to participate and their right to discontinue the interview at the any time of the process or withdraw the interview and/or have their data deleted from the study.

For the observations, consent was given by the customer, salon manager and therapist in each case. The privacy issue of observing during beauty treatments made it difficult to obtain the consent from many participants. Voluntary participation was emphasised and the participants had the opportunity to withdraw permission or change their mind about what they were happy to have observed.

In the UK, using auto-ethnography had its difficulty to gain the consent as it was an on-going process for a long period of time apart from formal interviews with experts. Auto-ethnography has its ethical concerns that need to be considered, even though it is a narrative of personal experience (Wall 2008). Nevertheless, the learners and staff at the institute were aware of the auto-ethnographer's identity as well as being a research student. The field notes focused more on the training approach and phenomena than the feelings or experience of participants.

The anonymity of participants was protected. Any opinion of a participant that appeared in the interview transcripts and narratives of auto-ethnography were allocated a specific code/number instead of their identity, which was used for quotations in the findings report. For coding interviewees, the first letter was used to present their sector. For example, an expert of education could be coded as 'EE1' and the expert of industry would be coded as 'IE1' to distinguish their expertise. It was considered that the sample was small, so the labelling

process and report writing should be more cautious as any description of job title or work content may make them identifiable.

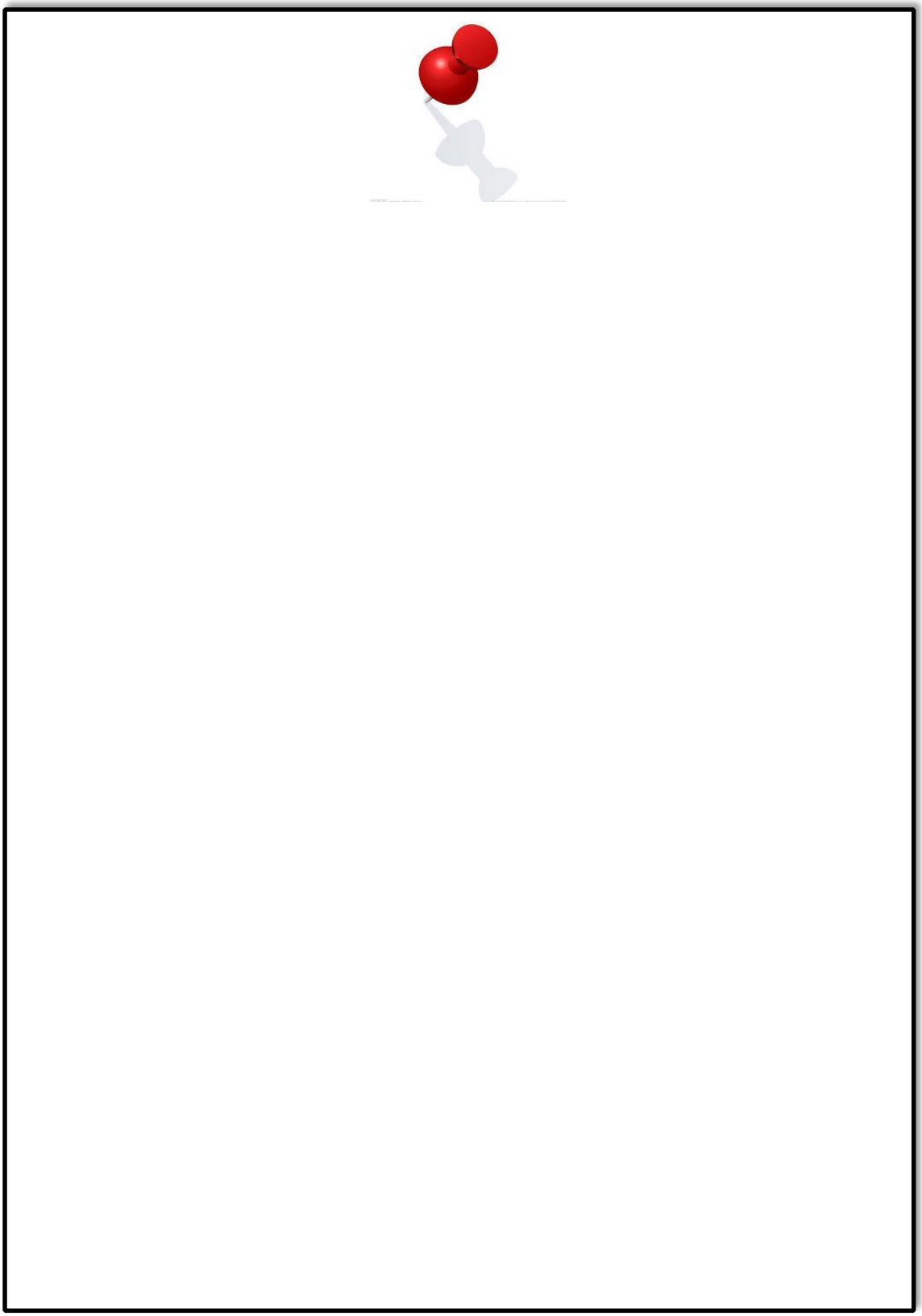
4.7 Summary of Chapter 4

This chapter ranges from discussing the concept of quality in research to reviewing the whole research process. The beauty professional is a profession that interacts with people: thus, interpretivism was considered as a suitable approach toward human social behaviour. Lincoln & Guba's (1985) criteria "credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability" was employed to evaluate the quality in this qualitative style of research. The reason for using these criteria is because the evaluation techniques are interconnected and correspond. The design of methodology was based on the concept of lens comparison to centralise the focus of the study, in viewing Taiwan's nurturing approach for beauty professionals from the lens of the UK's.

The methodology chosen is different for the UK and Taiwan. While auto-ethnography and document analysis were carried out in the UK, the methods used for Taiwan include observations, interviews and document analysis. The complexity of the research process is that different methods were employed in Taiwan and the UK; with some of the methods needing to be carried out in a logical sequence and sometimes they needed to be proceeded with at the same time. For example, the observation at workplaces in Taiwan would be pointless if it was carried out before the auto-ethnographic experience in the UK. Semi-structured interviews in Taiwan were divided into two phases in order for models to be developed and tested. The reason for using different methods is due to the purpose of study that aims at finding a strategy for improving beauty professional's competence in Taiwan.

Due to the huge amount of data from auto-ethnography and interview transcription, the analysis tool was adopted was thematic analysis using NVivo software to code the important words/phrases/sentences/paragraphs. The

quantitative ranking for identifying the importance of competence the beauty graduates that are expected to possess and are required to have at the point of graduation is presented in radar diagrams for comparing the viewpoints from educational and industrial experts. The researcher is fully aware of the ethical issues that arise when the data was collected, stored and used in accordance with accepted ethics protocols.



Chapter 5: Results of Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data collected from Taiwan and the UK and overall results from the analysis. UK data analysis is considered first in Section 5.2, in two sections: document analysis and auto-ethnography. This is followed by analysis of Taiwan data results in Section 5.3, in three sections: document analysis; workplace observations; and interviews.

Curriculum design documents were available in both Taiwan and the UK, but NOS documents and particular legislation/ regulations were only available in the UK, while details of government funding projects and the National Occupational Licence (NOL) were specific to Taiwan. Additionally, it is important to note that the two countries have a completely different educational structure and criteria for qualification: in other words, due to some different elements between both countries, it may not be always possible to compare directly, but is possible to learn from each other.

5.2 Analysis of data collected from the UK

This section is to analyse the relevant documents and the auto-ethnographic study of the UK's training approach in relation to VET. The data was collected from four types of documents: UK's beauty curriculum and programme specifications; National Occupational Standards (NOS); NOS levels of descriptor; and legislation, regulations and codes of practices relevant to the beauty sector established by government and professional bodies.

Also, ethnographic experiences as a learner, practitioner and lecturer/assessor were carried out to develop an in-depth understanding of the UK's training approach.

5.2.1 Analysis of UK documents

With the intention of understanding the UK's training approaches for beauty professionals, beauty curricula and programme specifications were the first source type to be studied. By reviewing beauty curricula and programme specifications, it was found that the vocational training programmes are developed based on the NOS, which was the second source to be discussed. From the process of document analysis, beauty related legislation, regulations and codes of practice established by the UK government and professional bodies that are firmly implemented into education and training were found.

5.2.1.1 Beauty curricula and programme specifications

In order to study the UK's training approach for beauty practitioners, the first step is to analyse their beauty curriculum and programme structure in FE and HVET. In general, FE beauty qualifications are extensively recognised, so it could be considered quite well established; whereas, the higher level of vocational education and training, especially in beauty, is considered to be still in the stage of development from FE to HE level, as its identity has not been clearly identified between academic and vocational education.

In FE, there are different qualifications provided by different awarding bodies (see Table B-0-1 in Appendix B). These awarding bodies not only offer FE qualifications, but also HVET qualifications up to Level 5 (see Section 2.3.2.1). FE's beauty curricula have shown consistency across different awarding bodies. Additionally, the levels of development can be seen from the titles of the unit. The feedback from HVET learners taking courses in FE colleges seems quite positive (Struthers 2006), even though TLRP (2008) points out that this type of learning is more complex than it seems. For example, learners from a vocational background have experienced some difficulties such as the requirements and expectations from HE level and personal commitments as they were not fully prepared with what they might be facing at HVET level. Certainly, it is important as it provides a progression route for practice based

learners (Anderson & Hemsworth 2005). It could possibly explain why HVET programmes take place in the FE sector as FE can offer sufficient facilities, workshops and specialists to support the vocational training. However, Jessup (1991) exposed the issue arising in the transition from a vocational education route to HVET: if this issue is considered in today's situation, it would indicate either that a gap could occur in the transition from FE to HVET or from sub-degree level (HVET level 5) to degree (HE/HVET level 6). HVET might not be beneficial for all vocational students as they are not necessarily fully prepared for HVET level of standard (TLRP 2008). This needs more attention for the higher level of the vocational route of learners.

HE institutions could also be the awarding body for HVET qualifications. Compared to FE, the higher level of beauty qualifications and curriculum design appear more varied. The vocational route in HE for the subject of beauty mainly takes place in Further Education Colleges (FECs) (Healey et al. 2014), also known as Colleges of Further and Higher Education (Colleges of FHE). HE provision in FECs is validated by Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) with funding from Higher Education Funding Council from England (HEFCE). This is to echo the government's policy of widening participation (Rowley 2005; LSIS 2009). The strategy of HE in FE sectors does encourage a wider background of learners, especially the learners from vocational routes, to study locally (Parry & Thompson 2002). The proportion has increased 7% from 1995 to 2004 (TLRP 2008:2). In order to distinguish various terms such as 'Higher Education in Further Education Colleges' (HE in FECs) (LSIS 2009; HEFCE 2009) or 'Vocational Higher Education' (VHE) (Little et al. 2003; FEFC 1996) used to indicate the vocational route of higher education, the term 'Higher Vocational Education' (HVE) (AoC 2014) was adopted to indicate all. Some CHEs only offer the programme up to Foundation Degrees (Fds) level, so they will normally partner with universities to provide a top-up year programme, while some of the universities have developed their Fds programme into a full BA degree.

HVET's beauty curricula show the focus and depth of specialist knowledge and skills, although it lacks breadth of knowledge. Nevertheless, the breadth of knowledge could be easily overcome through CPD. The detailed analysis can be seen in Appendix B.

In the UK, vocational education and training implements an outcome-based scheme, while Edexcel BTEC Higher National qualifications are criterion-referenced, which assess the evidence against learning outcomes and assessment criteria (Edexcel 2011:10). If the programme developed is based on NOS, the learning outcome of each level and unit is kept similar, for instance, outcome 1 is to be able to prepare [treatment] and outcome 2 is to be able to provide [treatment] across Levels 2, 3 and 4. Being able to prepare and provide [treatment] has basically covered the procedure of service from preparation to completion of treatment. However, the learning outcomes set out in BTEC Higher Nationals are further stretched from NOS and able to map against NOS Level 3 and 4 (Edexcel 2011).

In a degree course, more competence is developed, in a progressive manner. There are subject benchmark requirements for each level at HVET. It is important to note that these are not specifically tailored to beauty and make-up at HVET level. For artistic make-up and special effects relevant programmes, the benchmark was developed from the subject of Art and Design (Leicester College/Coventry Uinversity 2007; York College/York St John University 2013; Southampton Solent University 2014). As to the programme of beauty therapy, HABIA (2006:8) confirm that there are no subject benchmarks tailored for the programme of beauty therapy. The subject benchmark for beauty therapy related programmes such as complementary therapy was developed from the health care, social work or nursing subject benchmarks (Bolton College/University of Bolton 2010; Newcastle College/Northumbria University 2006). Some related beauty and make-up programmes are developed from the guidance of QAA (2010) if the subject benchmark used is not specified, such as

the programme of 'Beauty Therapy and Spa Management' in Barnfield college/University of Bedfordshire (2013) and 'Beauty and SPA Management Programme Specification' in London College of Fashion/University of the Arts London (2013).

5.2.1.2 National Occupational Standards (NOS)

NOS are UK nationwide recognised occupational standards. NOS describes "what a person needs to do, know and understand in a job to carry out the role in a consistent and competent way." NOS are defined as "statements of the standards of performance individuals must achieve when carrying out functions in the workplace, together with specifications of the underpinning knowledge and understanding" (UKCES 2011:4). As Hyde (2016) highlights, the NOS should still have its role in VET as "the NOS are the only common language we have to define vocational skills across all sectors."

HABIA, one of the UK regulatory authorities, a government appointed standards setting body that creates standards for Hair and Beauty, defines NOS as "a framework that describes what an individual needs to do, know and understand in order to carry out a particular job role or function in a particular industry" (HABIA 2016b). NOS is developed by Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) or Standards Setting Organisations consisting of the key representatives from all relevant stakeholders and approved by the regulatory authorities (Swailes et al. 2004:13; Hemsworth 2007:56; Ollin & Tucker 2008; Carroll & Boutall 2011:5; UKCES n.d.). There have been some difficulties with NOS development in recently due to the funding cut from the UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES) for 2016/17 (Camden 2016). This will cause a direct impact on the development of NOS and Apprenticeship Frameworks (Mayfield 2014). Although HABIA is the Standard Setting Organisation for the beauty industry, it cannot be guaranteed whether this sector will be affected. These standards are applied within industry as well as education and are applicable to different sizes of business, including the self-employed. NOS are up-to-date and describe

occupational competence of what one must be able to do and must achieve in a work role (Carroll & Boutall 2011).

The reason for selecting NOS to look at is because people may recognise NVQs, but have little recognition of NOS, especially in Taiwan. It is an important document that was necessary to explore, as the standards for all hair and beauty vocationally related qualifications including Hairdressing, Beauty Therapy, Nail Service, Spa Therapy, Barbering and African Type Hair are mainly developed based on NOS. Also, the standards are steered by experts from industry, education and associations, which offer a framework for training and development (HABIA 2016b).

In the UK, how the NOS developed is clearly illustrated (see Figure 5-1).

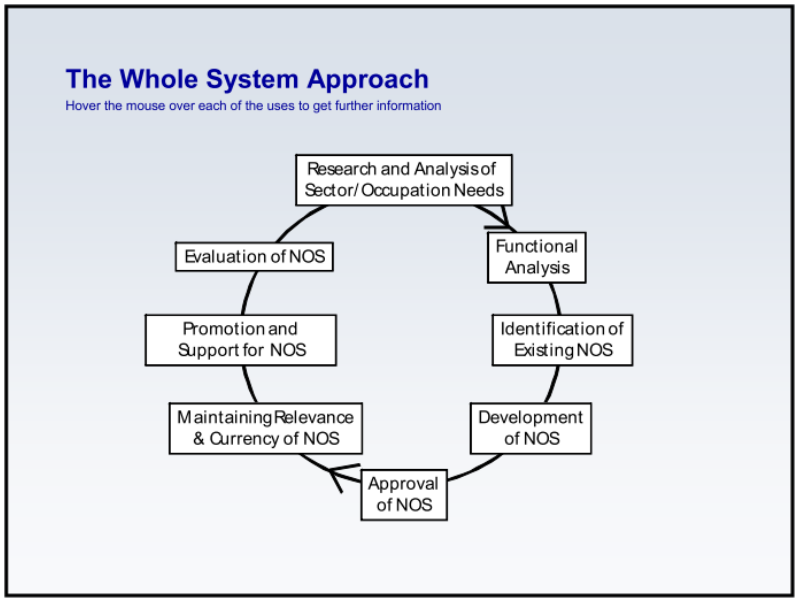


Figure 5-1: The system approach of developing NOS (NOS 2013)

According to HABIA (n.d.), not only will NOS provide benefits for employers and value for employees, but also it can be applied to organisational and individual level (see Table 5-1). In this study, standards of Beauty Therapy will be the focus of analysis and some units from Beauty Therapy are taken as examples. There are a wide range of specialist Beauty Therapy units within the NOS assigned to different levels. In order to make it easy to explain, the units

related to facial treatment from lower level to higher level were chosen to analyse as an example. NOS in the subjects of beauty are only developed, so far, up to Level 4 (HABIA 2006), which is the first year of HE level. For example, VTCT's VRQs Level 4 Diploma is the highest level qualification available in Advanced Beauty Therapy, Permanent Hair Removal and Skin Rejuvenation and Salon Management (VTCT 2013). Even at Level 5, BTEC Higher Nationals in Beauty Therapy Sciences are developed based on NOS level 4 (Edexcel 2005). The lack in levels of advancement and holistic development could probably be the reason for HE to hesitate before extensively adopting the NOS.

NOS provide benefits for employers	**NOS provide value for employees**
• Increase productivity • Improve quality of goods and services • Reduce costs for recruitment by facilitating the selection of new employees • Provide a means for better human resources planning • Help effective skills upgrading • Act as a benchmark for rewarding experience, knowledge and competence.	• Identify skills and knowledge needed for occupations • Provide a reference to assess ability and training needs • Identify and support clear career paths • Provide guidelines for certification/accreditation • Increase mobility within industries.

NOS can be used by organisations to	**NOS can be used by individuals to**
• Identify and plan personnel requirements • Design and implement recruitment and selection processes • Develop job descriptions and person specifications for staff and volunteers • Design, deliver and evaluate training • Use common standards of performance and quality in partnerships with other organisations and agencies • Demonstrate the competence of the organisation when applying for funding or tendering for projects • Plan appropriate development and training.	• Develop their self-confidence and enhance their personal effectiveness • Provide a means for determining gaps in knowledge, experience and skills • Offer an objective process for identifying training needs • Ensure best practice • Support their professional development • Open up a wider range of career opportunities • Help to transfer their competence to other work situations.

Table 5-1: The benefits and values of NOS (HABIA 2015)

The example units, shown below, are used for analysis. They are available on the internet and free to download (see Appendix J).

Levels	Title of Unit
Level 1	Assist with facial skin care treatments
Level 2	Provide facial skin care treatment
Level 3	Provide facial electrical treatment
Level 4	Provide skin needling treatment

Table 5-2: NOS example units for analysis

Each unit contains a unit number, title of the unit, overview of the unit, performance criteria, knowledge and understanding, scope/range related to knowledge and understanding that the unit needs to cover, values, behaviours and skills. The progression can be seen from the title of the units. The levels are clearly distinguished. For instance, level 1 is a basic level for developing a life skill aiming at being able to 'assist' with services. Level 2 and level 3 is aiming at being able to 'perform' treatment independently, progressing from manual method to being able to incorporate electrical equipment. The ability of operating electrical equipment requires functional skills and judgement according to skin conditions. The difference from level 3 upgrading to above level 4 is from performing non-invasive treatment to conducting invasive treatment. The progression from basic to advanced level can be seen from the title of units in Table 5-2.

The overview of the unit introduces the unit and explains the aim and learning outcomes. The learning outcomes are the same across Level 1 to Level 4. The framework for the learning outcomes is:

1. to maintain safe and effective methods of working when assisting/providing [name of the treatment],
2. to consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients
3. to carry out [name of the treatment]

4. to provide aftercare advice

The knowledge and understanding section lists all the information that learners 'need' to know and understand regarding skills and knowledge, such as organisational and legal requirements, the manner of working safely and effectively, consultation techniques, anatomy and physiology, contra-indications and contra-actions, equipment and products, specific knowledge required for treatments and care advice for the treatment in order to carry out the service.

Performance criteria are sub-divided into four parts using 'must' to emphasise the importance of the requirements. The progression can be seen on the verb stated for each objective. Take level 1 as an example, in the performance criteria, the language tends to use 'assisting', '…determinate the client's treatment needs within the limits of your responsibility', 'following any given instructions', 'meeting the client's therapist's satisfaction' and so forth. From level 2 to level 3, in addition to the focus of applying the treatment, at level 3 explaining, testing and adjusting the actions is important as it involves electrical equipment. Up to level 4 and 5, the treatments are complex, so the criteria involve more explanation, adjustment, judgement and evaluation. For instance, taking a thorough consultation and analysis to determine the setting of intensity and timing or size of needle is important in order to deliver a good judgement. Also, client care and observing the client's reaction is important as the intensity may need an adjustment. Thus, it requires more competence to minimise the risk of potential hazards and achieve an effective result.

The similarities and differences between these units in NOS demonstrate a pattern. Further breaking down the performance criteria into four sections of preparation, consultation, application and care advice based on the four example units, its similarities and differences are pointed out in more detail as follows.

The standard is manifested in an identical, but progressive manner according to the complexity of the unit. Take performance criteria one – preparation as an example, there are 12 criteria set for Level 1, 13 criteria for Level 2, 17 criteria for Level 3 and 19 for Level 4. For example, the Table 5-3: shows a criterion of preparation from Level 1 to 4. All levels appear almost the same, but Level 4 lists extra criteria to request disinfecting hands 'after treatment' apart from prior to treatment. It is because the treatment (skin needling treatment) involved could be an invasive treatment. In other words, the criteria are according to the complexity of the treatment.

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P1.5	effectively disinfecting your hands prior to facial treatments	effectively disinfecting your hands prior to facial treatments	effectively disinfecting your hands prior to treatment	effectively disinfect your hands prior to and after treatment

Table 5-3: An example of criterion for preparation

The second section of consultation contains the basic criteria across all levels. For example, in Appendix I, the criteria of 'asking your client appropriate questions to identify if they have any contra-indications to [treatment]' is identical across all levels, but a list of relevant contra-indications would be checked according to the treatment. In other words, for a facial, you would not check with the client if s/he has Athlete's foot. Certainly, a variety of criteria was also set to obtain extra information such as medical history and lifestyle pattern according to the level and complexity of the treatment. For example, analysis of the figure and posture will be required for a body treatment.

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P2.1	using consultation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment needs within the limits of your responsibility	using consultation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment plan	using consultation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment needs	use consultation and evaluation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment needs

Table 5-4: An example of criterion for consultation

Table 5-4, for instance, the criterion P2.1 shows similar content at each level, but level 1 shows the restriction due to the ability in its level. Due to the complexity of the treatment in Level 4, the client's medical history and condition will be further probed in order to determine whether the treatment should be carried on. The depth of the information required for consultation from different levels can be seen in Appendix I.

Regarding the section of application, they all appear different due to the difference of the treatments. For example, one of the criteria for applications is shown in Table 5-5. More details can be referenced in the Appendix I.

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P3.4	removing masks after the recommended time and without discomfort to the client	leaving the skin smooth, free of any surface debris and products using an exfoliation technique suitable for the client's skin type and skin condition	adjusting the intensity and duration of the treatment to suit the client's facial skin type and condition	safely use the correct needle size for the skin condition and problem being treated to meet manufacturer's instructions

Table 5-5: An example of criterion for facial related treatments

The last, performance criteria of care advice, is described exactly the same across all levels (see Table 5-6), but required additional information for care advice stated in NOS, which can be seen differently in the scope/range comparing the unit of Level 1 and the unit of level 4 (see Table 5-7). NVQs, competence-based qualifications, are criticised as lacking progressive development (Hyland 1993b) although it is developed based on the NOS: this may be indicated in the limited degree of progression shown in the analysis.

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P4	**provide aftercare advice by**	**provide aftercare advice by**	**provide aftercare advice by**	**Provide aftercare advice**
P4.1	giving advice and recommendations accurately and constructively	giving advice and recommendations accurately and constructively	giving advice and recommendations accurately and constructively	give advice and recommendations accurately and constructively
P4.2	giving your clients suitable advice on basic facial skin care	giving your clients suitable advice specific to their individual needs	giving your clients suitable advice specific to their individual needs	give your clients suitable advice specific to their individual needs.

Table 5-6: An example of criterion for care advice

Level 1	Level 4
1. suitable aftercare products and their use	1. avoidance of activities which may cause contra- actions
2. avoidance of activities which may cause contra-actions	2. hygiene requirements
3. recommended time intervals in-between facial treatments	3. future treatment needs
4. home care routines	4. modifications to lifestyle patterns
	5. healthy eating, drinking and exercise advice
	6. suitable home care products and their use.

Table 5-7: Scope/range of additional information related to performance criteria of care advice

In contrast to the NOS Levels analysed above, in Table 5-8 below, a skill framework for the IT sector has been developed with their own descriptors. They give a clear progression in levels, indicated through the verb descriptors.

Levels	Descriptors
Level 1	Follow
Level 2	Assist
Level 3	Apply
Level 4	Enable
Level 5	Ensure, Advise
Level 6	Initiate, Influence
Level 7	Set strategy, inspire, mobilise

Table 5-8: UK Skill framework for IT sector defined seven level labels in a simple term (Grant 2011)

The IT sector used a verb description to indicate the level of competence, progressing from shadowing to taking an initiative and from doing to leading. For example, Level 1 and 2 is to be able to follow the instruction and assist, which is very much similar to Level 1 in foundation of hair and beauty studies. These levels are still in need of supervision. The progression can be clearly seen from the verb used that is from explicit to implicit. This type of levels of competence is very similar to NOS (see Appendix I). However, in NOS, learning outcomes are defined too briefly and broadly. 'Must be able to plan and

prepare' and 'must be able to apply' has not demonstrated the depth of competence into the development, although the underpinning knowledge and performance criteria do show the differences in levels explicitly.

A comparison of NVQs Level 4 and 5 to HE level descriptors is given in Appendix D. NVQs level 1 to 5 focus more on the task achievements related to work, whereas, HE's level descriptors appears more to concentrate on personal development. Since the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) switched to the Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF), the levels were expanded from levels 1-5 to 11 levels, from Entry 1 to Level 8, to bring in the vocational and academic qualifications into one framework (see Figure 2-11and Figure 2-12 in Section 2.3.2.1). The Regulated Qualification Framework (RQF) was introduced in 2015 and is replacing QCF (Ofqual 2015a). The eleven levels of QCF and RQF remains the same. the RQF framework is stated to be descriptive rather than prescriptive. The QCF and RQF Level descriptors are given in Appendix D. They integrate vocational and academic approaches, but the QCF includes descriptions of Knowledge and Understanding, Application and Action (i.e. skills and tasks) and Autonomy and Accountability for each level, while the RQF only identifies Knowledge and Skills descriptors. This change in level descriptors appeared to focus more on knowledge and skills, with the attributes that were mentioned under Autonomy and Accountability no longer included. Regardless of general route of education or vocational pathway, being competent for the field of work is important. This should include appropriate attributes, to balance the elements of competence. There are not much differences in the Knowledge and Skills level descriptors (see Table 5-9 and Table 5-10 below).

	Level Knowledge descriptor (the holder ...)	Skills descriptor (the holder can...)
RQF Level 5 descriptor	Has practical, theoretical or technological knowledge and understanding of a subject or field of work to find ways forward in broadly defined, complex contexts. Can analyse, interpret and evaluate relevant information, concepts and ideas. Is aware of the nature and scope of the area of study or work. Understands different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the reasoning behind them.	Determine, adapt and use appropriate methods, cognitive and practical skills to address broadly defined, complex problems. Use relevant research or development to inform actions. Evaluate actions, methods and results.

Table 5-9: An example of RQF Level 5 descriptor (Ofqual 2015b)

	Knowledge and understanding	Application and action
QCF Level 5 descriptor	Use practical, theoretical or technological understanding to find ways forward in broadly defined, complex contexts Analyse, interpret and evaluate relevant information, concepts and ideas Be aware of the nature and scope of the area of study or work Understand different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the reasoning behind them	Address broadly-defined, complex problems Determine, adapt and use appropriate methods and skills Use relevant research or development to inform actions Evaluate actions, methods and results

Table 5-10: An example of QCF Level 5 descriptor (Ofqual 2008)

However, the NOS is continuing, although a new standard for NOS is being developed. Its importance of NOS for the level of further education can be acknowledged, as its guidance is recognised by education and industry in their development of training programmes. Because NOS is recognisable in both sectors, NOS could be an important element to unify a service structure to bridge the different settings of both education and industry.

So far, there are only a few programmes related to advanced beauty therapy and salon/spa management that have adopted NOS at HE level and the

progression is only up to level 4 (HABIA 2006). In other words, NOS still needs a lot of development to explore the levels of development and demonstrate the level of progression up to academic standard.

It is important to note that although it is not compulsory to implement NOS into the curriculum at HVET level, it was strongly recommended and the demand for using NOS in HE is growing, especially for work-related programmes (Swailes et al. 2004). Swalies et al. have, moreover, pointed out that a good reason for adapting NOS in the higher vocational qualifications is to extend the structure from FE to HVET consistently and also to reinforce the connection between education, industry and professional bodies. At an informal interview with UKEE-G agreed that the benefit of implementing NOS to the HVET sector will provide a seamless transition from FE to HVET.

Also, the flexibility of adapting NOS in HVET beauty related programmes is not only to keep the consistency of vocational education, but also to meet the increasing demand of CPD. Vocational related qualifications should closely link to industry and professional bodies to minimise any gap that might be created through the transition from FE to HVET.

5.2.1.3 Regulations and Codes of Practice

The tailored legislation, regulations and codes of practice related to beauty sector will be broadly analysed in this section.

Beauty salons can be dangerous places where risks and hazards may occur for practitioners, clients and other staff on the premises who are involved in the treatment service, if precautions are not taken. Almond (1986) stated that "Hairdressing and beauty therapy involve close liaison with the public." There are various treatments carried out involving electronic equipment and chemical materials which may cause damage or hazards to the public or environment. Therefore, it is important for practitioners to be fully aware of the legislations and regulations related to health & safety and hygiene.

In the UK, beauty qualifications all contain mandatory units that cover industrial knowledge, legislation and regulations related to health & safety and hygiene. Every beauty learner will be requested to understand the relevant legislation, roles and environment of the beauty sector. The ability to manage the risks that may arise to themselves, clients and visitors that are exposed in the premises is targeted as part of their competence as a practitioner (HSE n.d.). It helps beauty practitioners realise to what extent responsibilities and action need to be taken before treatments/ procedures and afterward, in terms of health and safety issues: otherwise, the level of danger and harm could be increased. The importance of compliance with legislation and recording accidents at work is because the responsibility for causing harm to the customer or putting them at risk needs to be understood and addressed. Records must be kept for three years in any form, such as copies of completed report forms or saved as an electronic document (Burnley City Council 2008). In addition, reducing harm to the environment is also an important responsibility (Business Link 2008).

A list of relevant legislation and regulations specifically tailored to the beauty related industries with professional body's advice (HSE n.d.), which are part of mandatory units of the qualifications, is given below. These relevant legislation and regulations are embedded in every level of training programmes as mandatory units. Not only will students be reminded of this legislation and regulations in the process of learning, but also be requested to apply them to any practice. The breadth and depth of understanding and application may develop further when the level gets higher.

In the industrial sector, legislation and regulations have equally protected employers', employees' and customers' rights. For instance, a beauty therapist must refer the client if there is any possibility of causing cross-infection in order to protect the practitioner him/herself and other clients from being cross infected. There are also Working Time Regulations 1998 that stated the

working hours and minimum rest periods (HSE 2016).These two examples demonstrate the difference to Taiwan.

A list of relevant legislation and regulations related to beauty is shown below.

- Health and Safety at Work Act 1974
- Management of Health and Safety at Work regulations 1999
- Manual Handling Operations
- Cash Handling
- First Aid
- Personal Protective Equipment
- Control of Substances Hazardous to Health Regulations (COSHH) Regulations
- Gas Safety Regulations
- Electricity at Work Regulations
- Reporting of Injuries, Diseases and Dangerous Occurrences Regulations (RIDDOR)
- Local Authority Bylaws
- Health & Safety and Welfare Regulations
- Provision and use of Work Equipment Regulations
- Fire Precautions (Workplace) Regulations
- Environmental Protection Act – controlled waste regulations and special waste regulations.
- The Consumer Protection Act 1987
- Employers Liability (Company Insurance) Act 1969
- Data Protection Act
- Consumer Protection Legislation
- Working Time Regulations 1998
- Appropriate Codes of Ethics

These Acts, legislation and regulations mentioned above can be quite general to every profession, but they are allowed to be tailored in order to apply to any specific sector: every profession has its consideration of distinctive practice.

In this case, the UK authority has taken a proactive role with professional bodies' assistance to draw up the legislation and regulations to regulate the industrial practice and request the professionals to comply with and adhere to all relevant legislation – this not only helps to protect the client, but also the professional. However, through Vickers et al. (2003) study, it was found that small businesses or micro-businesses have encountered more difficulties in complying with health and safety requirements.

In addition to the legislation and regulations for health and safety working practice, each professional body also develops their code of practice/code of conduct to supervise and monitor their members' industrial practice, which is something that Taiwan is not familiar with, but worth recommending to Taiwan. For instance, the Federation of Holistic Therapists (FHT) has written and updated their code of practice regularly as guidance for their members to conduct their practice up to their standard (FHT 2014). The code of practice is broadly written to advise the practitioners, not only how to conduct their behaviour and practice, but also respond to the scope of business development.

The content for codes of practice is different from one another. For instance, the Code of Conduct for Register of Beauty Professionals (HABIA 2016a) includes four principles: Professional Standards, Rights, Professionals' Relationships and Personal and Business Responsibilities and Safe Working Practices. Whereas, The International Aromatherapy and Aromatic Medicine Association (IAAMA) covers insurance, premises, personal hygiene, furniture, client register, members' responsibilities, liaison with other professionals and internal use of essential oils in their code of practice (IAAMA 2012). NVQ also

has its code of practice established to specify the additional quality assurance and control requirements for awarding bodies to use (QCA 2006).

In order to promote a successful business, a code of practice also provides advice on how to maintain good working relationships with both clients and colleagues to ensure the smooth running of the establishment and its on-going success. In addition, they would cover how to meet or exceed client expectations, perhaps through adaptation of the procedures where possible, but always maintaining safe working practices in response to the performance criteria of the NOS. By safeguarding the client, both from physical harm (Health and Safety, Fire Regulations etc.) and mental/emotional distress, as well as maintaining client confidentiality, the business is also prevented from breaching the laws.

The information in the codes of practice established by professional bodies also responds to the UK government policy of equality, diversity and inclusion that requires that people are always treated fairly and with respect, at a personal level (e.g. equal opportunities/discrimination etc.) and professionally. Also, enhancement of professional attributes/attitude, the extension of professional knowledge and development of skills not only could provide a high standard of performance, thus fulfilling the client's requirements, but also communicate the art behind the physical skills of the practitioner. By complying with a code of practice, the business and practitioners would continually strive to improve performance and to remain safe and competitive in the market.

5.2.2 Data analysis of Auto-ethnographic experience in the UK

The purpose of carrying out auto-ethnography was built on the intention of understanding UK's training system for beauty professionals. The auto-ethnographic experiences from being a learner to a lecturer naturally progressed as the research developed, according to the plan of matching the researcher's previous auto-ethnographic experiences in Taiwan.

As the researcher has addressed in the methodology chapter, this auto-ethnography is not about writing or positioning self in the auto-ethnography (see Section 4.3.2). It is only to view, experience and present the practice through a beauty-field practitioner's eyes to articulate the UK's approach. The UK's structure is not the focus of the study, but it is important to briefly introduce a complete picture to Taiwanese readers.

5.2.2.1 Auto-ethnographic experience as a learner

The activities the researcher was involved in as a learner, as part of the experience of auto-ethnography, includes learning, assessment and work experience (see Figure 5-2).

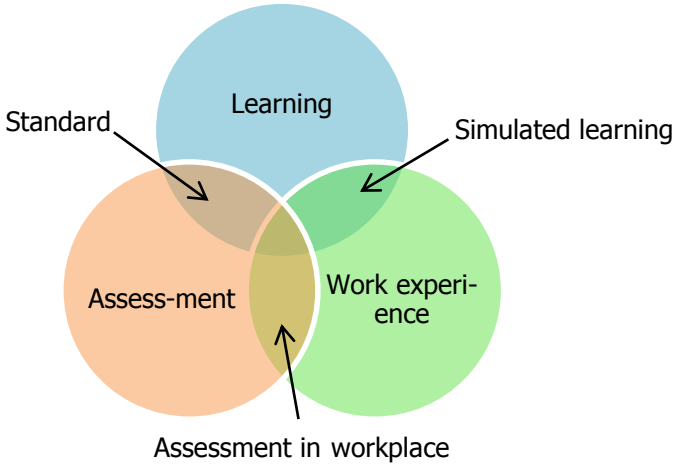


Figure 5-2: The correlation between learning, assessment and work experience

From Figure 5-2, standard is identified as the interlinking element between learning and assessment, which echoes NOS discussed in the document analysis (see 5.2.1.2). With an agreed standard in place, simulated learning is considered to be the element to bridge the difference between learning and work experience. The common ground between assessment and work experience is the assessment in the workplace, which is the strength of FE. Although the assessment in the workplace is mainly established for work-based learning and NVQs at FE level, implementing assessment at the workplace at HVET level is strongly recommended, even though the cost and the overloading

with paperwork to have the assessment implemented in workplaces was highlighted (Ward 1993; Hyland 1998; Lester 1999d).

Along with experiencing the learning process, other learners' values and attitudes towards learning were explored as it was very different to the Taiwanese learning culture. Also, viewing lecturers and assessors from a learner's point of view was also discussed.

Before analysing the data, the background regarding the time and place in which the auto-ethnographic experience was carried out should be briefly introduced. In 2009, the auto-ethnographic journey as a learner commenced at Leicester College (LC) in the UK, after a few visits and consultations with the CAM of the Hair and Beauty Department (UKEE-A). The reason for choosing LC is because it is one of the largest colleges in England and the College has a partnership with one of the awarding bodies, De Montfort University: in other words, the College is established in both the FE and HE sectors (QAA 2011). After several meetings with the CAM regarding the study, the concept of conducting auto-ethnographic experience emerged and was supported.

After the agreement to study in the college, the enrolment process including interview and an initial assessment to identify if there was any learning support that needed to be in place was carried out. Once enrolled, the staff of LC were informed, so personal presence for the purpose of the study was acknowledged and recognised there. As a learner, taking three vocational qualifications at the same time is a very intense learning experience as it normally takes one level of qualification for a year at a time.

The auto-ethnographic study was carefully planned across FE and HVET, with the timetable customised by the CAM. The previous educational background and work experiences in the beauty field was considered: therefore, attending courses across three qualifications - NVQ in Level 2 Beauty Therapy, Level 3 Beauty Therapy and VTCT Diploma in Level 3 Artistic Make-up and Special

Effects (AMSE) was permitted. Due to the complexity of the timetable between different levels, groups and courses, there were times they tried to persuade me to take an easy approach by giving up one or two of the qualifications. They were persuaded by my determination, so this task could be completed.

5.2.2.1.1 Learning and assessment

During the auto-ethnographic experience as a learner, learning and assessment were the most important activities. After being introduced to the groups, it was found that the majority of learners were more interested in knowing how my time was managed studying three vocational qualifications rather than what my research was. However, in this section, learning and teaching was discussed as from the viewpoint of a learner.

The study of Level 2 and 3 Beauty Therapy courses was with the group of HND learners. HND is a two-year programme, which is equivalent to level 4 and level 5 of HVET. There were only five learners in the group, all female, as they have encountered a difficulty in recruiting HVET learners. The members of the group came from mixed backgrounds and it was new to some people in the group. The age of the group between the group was from 20 to over 50.

The learning environment was around the salons, workshops and labs. The college also has its own dispensaries managed by the receptionists and technicians. The dispensaries store a wide range of products, tools and equipment for lecturers to use for demonstration and learners to use for learning. Sometimes, the technician will prepare the products, tools and equipment for the lesson or request learners to collect the materials from the timetabled technician in the dispensaries if short of staff.

Some of the first year of HND course content was a combination of Level 2 and Level 3 Beauty Therapy. For example, we started from NOS Level 2 units such as manicure and pedicure, facial, make-up, waxing and moved up to Level 3 units including epilation and electrical facials. There were also some theoretical

sessions such as Health and Safety, Risk Assessment and so on. For some of the units such as aromatherapy, body massage and body electrical treatments, the sessions were taken with another Level 3 Beauty Therapy group because these units were set out for second year of HND. The practical sessions between FE and HVET level within teaching and learning seemed not much different, but theoretical assignments issued for HE learners did require a great deal of self-study.

The teaching team was the same team teaching and assessing across FE and HVET. The delivery approach was quite relaxed and calm in HVET sessions: whereas, in FE, the atmosphere was completely opposite. Because the auto-ethnographic study was experienced across different groups at different levels, it was found that the lecturers' attitude towards different groups and sessions were different. Through some informal interviews with some lecturers, the size of the group, learners' attitude and maturity would affect their teaching performance and sometimes it could demotivate them.

In terms of assessment, learners were assessed by timetabled assessor(s) and were also allowed to be assessed by other assessors if required, according to the number of learners to be assessed. However, it is common that learners might be taught by someone and be assessed by the other assessors.

In the assessment, health & safety and hygiene are the most important criterion. Learners have been taught the importance of cleaning and sanitising the tools and equipment before and after use, but it still could be observed on assessment day that the majority of learners just ignored the requirement. The concern is that it could be reflected in the real world practice.

The assessment procedure would be assessed from preparation for the treatment, consultation, application to care advice. Learners have to bring the knowledge and skills they learned from the class to the assessment environment. Being assessed, candidates could be questioned orally before,

during or after the assessment to confirm the candidate's knowledge and understanding. If candidates were assessed on more than one treatment on the same client, they would need to inform the assessor, so they are aware of it. Some assessors would follow good practice to confirm the candidate's treatment plan and ensure that the candidate has thought through the treatment sequence, so the treatment effect could be maximised.

After the assessment was completed, learners would be waiting for feedback from the assessor one by one. What a learner has performed well and what required an improvement would be identified by the assessor in oral and written form. If the comments of the feedback are agreed, both need to sign on the assessment form. It was fairly structured as all assessments were performed to this standard. Although there were a few arguments regarding certain practices, the assessor would confirm with the lead assessor to clarify the argument.

Regarding the AMSE course, there were two groups and each group had almost eighteen female learners. The age range was between 16-18 and over 19. The majority of them were upgraded from VTCT Level 2 AMSE. The style of teaching and learning was a character-based programme: in other words, the ranges were covered by creating characters, which include make-up, hairstyling, costume and accessories. The lecturer had set the characters, for example, from straight make-up for stage to producing prosthetic pieces. Learners were encouraged to discuss their design idea and practise their own ideas rather than imitate the lecturer's demonstration. The final look was presented with the whole design including hairstyling, make-up, outfit and accessories. Photography must be taken as evidence and displayed in the portfolio. A portfolio and logbook was built and recorded the learning journey. This style of learning is different to Taiwan's beauty education.

One more difference is in the assessment structure. Learners would be requested to do some research based on the theme or design brief in order to

produce a mood board/story board. Based on the mood board, learners would be required to create a design sheet to state the sequence, the products/tools/equipment/techniques that they are planning to use and the cost and to present the possible outcome/look. On the assessment day, learners would be assessed on the whole process rather than the design outcome only. Sometimes, the assessors will test learners' knowledge and challenge their approach during the assessment. Whereas, in Taiwan, we tend to assess learners' make-up skills according to the final look, but a lot of skills and knowledge were not developed and challenged in the process.

The process includes setting up the work station, presenting the design idea to the assessor and client, consulting with the client, applying the make-up design, removing the make-up and giving care advice. Health & Safety, hygienic practice and professionalism was considered throughout. The assessment form, with full details of the customer and treatment plan, should be filled out prior to the assessment.

The mood board was displayed and the design sheet was used for explaining the design idea to the assessor and client. The assessment time would depend on the complexity of the design and if the assessment contains more than one assessment criterion. For instance, learners can cover as many ranges as they can in one character as long as it could enhance the design. The ranges are specified in the specification as part of criteria that must be covered. The assessment approach is very flexible and required a lot of planning by candidates.

The make-up dispensary also stores a variety of costumes from period fashion to fantasy style in the wardrobe of the workshop. Although it was found difficult to keep the costumes clean as learners tend to use them with very little care, it does encourage learners to utilise a wider range of materials for enhancing the characters. The availability of materials does encourage learners to engage more in the course.

Overall, the process of make-up was similar to the assessment of beauty treatments. The main dissimilarities could be found at the planning and consultation stage. The design plan requires a lot of preparation such as research, drawing and creating moodboard prior to the assessment. In terms of consultation, it may be more appropriate to state as a presentation in the category of make-up, even though certain criteria still need to be carried out, for instance, the contra-indication check, skin analysis and contra-action warning. However, when the practice involves make-up, it could be very simple like basic make-up for general customers. Or it could be very complicated, especially when it goes into the extreme of the spectrum such as artistic and theatre/film types of make-up. This would have a lot of variables and less predictability as the make-up could possibly involve the photographer, director, models/actors/actresses, hairstylists, costume designer, script and so forth in the real world practice.

In addition to beauty and make-up courses, there were some enrichment courses such as nail art, lash perming, ear piercing, self-tanning and so forth available for college learners to attend outside of learning hours. Some of the sessions were free of charge, but some of them required extra fees. Not only can learners acquire some different techniques that are excluded from their qualification, but also these courses bring an extra income for the department. The College also promotes evening courses to generate extra income. Those evening courses, such as Asian make-up, semi-permanent eyelash extension, reflexology and so on, were open to the public. An in-house certificate will be issued to verify the attendance.

During the experience as a learner, integrating into the groups was a challenge, as not only was there a difference in race, culture and age, but also it took time to fuse in and gain the trust from them. 'Being there' and 'being one of them' allowed them to gradually lower their guard and was a way to be accepted as part of the group, not an observer/researcher or an outsider to them. The

reason for engaging in all the learning activities is to experience what other participants experienced.

From the observation, it was found that the young learners in the groups were less considerate and lacked empathy. Some learners were not particularly friendly or approachable and some of them were even quite impolite towards lecturers and peers. It could be, perhaps, be explained that they were fairly young and have not much experience of approaching a foreigner even though the UK is a multicultural country. However, the impression given was that they were not interested in different cultures.

This auto-ethnographic experience suggests that UK learners are well supported in learning compared to the learners in Taiwan. Not only is the size of the class small (approximately 20: if there are more than 20 learners in a FE class, an additional member of staff is needed due to health and safety concern), but also learners could receive various one-on-one support including financial, learning, academic, mentoring support apart from regular tutorials. It was observed that the learners of the UK take this support for granted.

Observation of the whole experience in learning showed that teaching and learning is varied, as every lecturer has their own teaching style and strategies compared to the structure of assessment which is similar. For instance, some lecturers prefer to deliver theoretical knowledge, then demonstrate techniques: while, the others may prefer to explain the theoretical knowledge alongside the demonstration. However, in order to pass the theoretical test and practical assessment, the various teaching styles are, at least, in line with the same standard. With regard to assessment, learners were given a certain time to complete the whole process. The sequence is very structured and consistent as there are not many variations. The sequence changes only when there are more than one treatment or/and contra-action arose due to the treatment.

From the participation of the FE and HVET groups, it was found that learners' maturity and quality could be differentiated immediately. HVET learners at FE were focused; whereas, FE learners' attention span was short and easily distracted.

Another difference between beauty and make-up is the atmosphere of the environment. The beauty area was quiet and calm; whereas, the make-up lab was noisy and busy. This could also reflect on learners' characteristics. The Beauty Therapy learners' attributes could be distinguished from the AMSE groups. The difference in attributes could be a reference for guiding learners to identify their suitability to the field.

5.2.2.1.2 Assessment and work experience

Assessment is an important part of learning. It was a new experience and was not particularly explained because the majority of learners seemed familiar with the structure of assessment. After the first term, learners would be encouraged to carry out their assessment during a client session. The client session was normally a 3-hours session, timetabled every week during term time. Client sessions can be seen as a workshop, which is open to the public. The bookings will be taken by the reception set up by the department. In order to generate extra income, some colleges would set up a salon room for the public and assign a staff member to be the manager of client sessions. The rest of the client sessions would be held by assessors.

The assessment setting was in the salon or workshop environment. For the programme of beauty therapy, the assessor would collect a client booking list from the reception and ensure that all bookings were allocated to level 2 or 3 learners in Beauty Therapy who want to gain hours of work experience. The clients will be requested to sign a consent form to ensure that clients are fully aware that the service is part of a taught course: in other words, clients are informed that the service is carried out under supervision and are prepared that imperfections may occur.

In order to understand the structure of assessment, observing others' performance, self-studying and making notes of the assessment procedure were the strategy to identify the approaches. At this point, it was found that creating a system in a spreadsheet to write down the preparation and procedure in detail for treatments would be more effective to memorise the procedure (see Appendix J). Through this process, it was evident that the majority of the treatment processes were similar.

The two examples shown in Appendix J demonstrate that the structure of the spreadsheet did not need to change. It contains sections on products/tools/equipment, preparation, consultation, steps and care advice.

This system allowed me to recognise a repeated structure and assisted me to complete 265 assessments effectively within a restricted time frame. Regarding the assessment criteria or methods, we as learners were not fully aware and informed.

Prior to the assessment, a student would choose a couch in one of the beauty rooms and set up the work area including preparing the products, sanitise the tools and equipment and ensure that the client record card and consultation sheet were ready. When the client arrived, the student would be informed to pick up him/her from the reception. Then they would introduce themselves to the client and lead them to the treatment room. It is important to give the client a good impression at the very beginning of the service. The client was advised where to sit for a consultation. After agreement of the treatment through consultation, if there was no contra-indication, the client would be advised on how to prepare himself/herself for the treatment. Further analysis on the skin or body figure including skin compatibility or sensitivity test would be carried out, depending on the type of treatment. Due to the difference in application, precautions such as a patch test need to be completed 24 to 48 hours prior the treatment if necessary. Contra-actions would be informed and treatment procedure would be briefly explained. After the treatment, the client would be given the after care and home care advice, which would be observed by the assessor. At the end of the assessment, the feedback would be given by the assessor.

For the AMSE, learners would be requested to produce a mood board and design plan. The design plan will include products, tools, equipment and techniques that they are going to use. Visual aids such as a design sheet drawing the possible final look to explain the character is an essential criteria of the design.

At the time of the auto-ethnographic study, for NVQs, learners needed to be assessed on paying clients and the client needed to book through the reception

even when they arranged their own client to come in for the assessment. For assessment, the price for the treatment was reduced to a minimum cost. In 2010, VRQs replaced NVQs as a college-based qualification. The restriction of being assessed on a paying client was deregulated. Learners are allowed to be assessed on each other in the class. However, NVQs were shifted to a work-based learning qualification.

Work-based learning programmes were designed for people who are studying in an apprenticeship programme or at a workplace. The majority of the time, their learning takes place at the workplace and they only come to the College once a week during term time for theory sessions. In this case, assessors will visit workplaces to assess learners.

5.2.2.1.3 Work experience and Learning

At the colleges of the UK, learners are trained in their subject knowledge and skills around in a salon environment: in other words, a simulated learning environment. According to the strategy of vocational education and training, simulated learning is one of the important approaches for students to have real world experience at the training centre (i.e. college). A simulated learning environment could only be established to a certain level of standard as some facilities, tools and equipment could be a vast investment.

The simulated workplace is also opened to the public for client sessions, so learners could have opportunities to work with real paying clients. However, this type of simulated workplace was executed more efficiently when NVQs were a college-based learning qualification because NVQs requested learners to be assessed on paying clients. As a learner, personally, the benefit of working on real clients was recognised, although it was hard to find the client and also to experience the full range of treatments. However, it is just a matter of opinion as some people felt much more stressed to work on real clients.

Apart from simulated learning, learners were also encouraged to gain some work experience as part of learning. The College has established a reputable network with industries and charities, so the learners will have some opportunities to volunteer for work experience. For example, sometimes, charities might hold a pampering event and look for beauty learners to perform treatments in exchange for some donations from the visitors. More commonly, make-up learners would have opportunities to participate in fashion shows, photo shoots, theatre plays and fantasy events.

The work environment and experience in make-up artistry was very different and it was difficult to adapt what had learned from college into work. The make-up service could be carried out at any location for a photo shoot or any setting for filming. It could be carried out at a theatre with different numbers of cast and speed changing between scenes or it could be at a humid and crowded backstage for a fashion show and so forth. All the preparation such as checking environment, ventilation, temperature, aroma and lighting for health and safety seemed not so applicable. It would be very unlikely to have a patch test beforehand and one would not have time to go through the consultation sheet to identify any possible contra-indications and analyse the skin condition, let alone care advice. For instance, even if cast members had contra-indications, we were taught that we would not turn the people away, but work around the condition. In this case, the care advice was normally passed on during the service if there was any particular measure the client needed to be aware of. However, the standard was taught through learning and learners have to be equipped with the knowledge and skills, so learners should be expected to be able to adjust to any situation/condition they could encounter in the industry.

At the time of being a learner, work experience was encouraged and set as a target for learning, but it was not compulsory for a full-time learner. Certainly, there was no assessment at the workplace. In other words, this is very

different to work-based learning style. Only work-based learners would be assessed at the workplace. In order to promote 'employability skills', in FE full-time learning, work experience became a compulsory element of the study programmes from 2014 – during the period as a lecturer - and is timetabled alongside learners' studies. A work experience co-ordinator was stationed at each department.

From the observation, the co-ordinator is not necessarily equipped with industrial knowledge, which raised the difficulties in arranging the work experience opportunities and carrying out risk assessment at workplace for the young learners. It was found that the requirement for paperwork is, again, more than what it actually shows. Without being assessed at the workplace, very few learners really took the work experiences seriously.

5.2.2.1 Auto-ethnographic experience as a practitioner

After obtaining the qualifications, in order to test whether the training from the UK could be applied to work straightaway, a paid job in a beauty salon was obtained to fulfil the purpose. In addition, the service pattern identified from auto-ethnographic experience as a learner was implemented into the experiment of working in the beauty salon. As a beauty practitioner, duties, tasks and practice are the three activities involved in the job (see Figure 5-3).

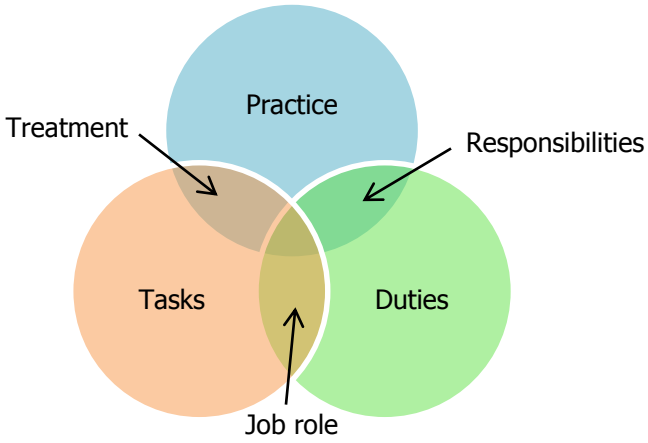


Figure 5-3: The correlation between tasks, duties and practice within a role of a beauty practitioner

Huang (2003:20) defines the term of 'task' as the smallest unit that individuals engage in professional activities and 'duty' as the job responsibilities stated in the contract. The correlation between practice and tasks for beauty professionals is treatment services such as facial treatment, body massage and so on. The relationship between practice and duty for beauty professionals could indicate health & safety, complying with regulations, rules and codes of practice, etc. Tasks and duties form a job role as beauty professionals (see Figure 5-3).

A salon located in Leicester was chosen as they were recruiting new therapists. It was a two floor salon. The front room of the ground floor was mainly reception, threading area and laser treatment room. At the back, it was one treatment room, storage for products, a lavatory and a pantry area. At the first floor, there were two treatment rooms and one nail bar, a hair and make-up room with storage for equipment and restroom. The reason for choosing this salon to work and observe is because it contained all types of treatment ranging from nail, hair and make-up to beauty therapy.

A trial of demonstrating three types of treatment, manicure, pedicure and body massage, was requested on the first day. During this trial, the process and techniques learned from the College were applied. The second day, a senior therapist was assigned to make an introduction of the salon environment, product ranges, facilities and equipment. In addition, the job duties and tasks were clearly explained. The duties in the salon included setting up the work area according to the booking, tidying the treatment room after the service, answering the calls and taking the bookings at the reception if necessary. The tasks were carrying out the treatments based on the bookings. In addition, an extra task was assigned, which was promoting some particular treatments such as micro-demabrasion to clients.

The following day, a feedback from the trial was positive, so permission for working with real clients was given. It proved that what was learned from the College could actually be recognised in industry.

The daily tasks include checking the bookings and preparing the treatment room prior to the arrival of the client. The consultation sheet was ready, but the content was very brief and lacking detail of information. The treatment had to be completed within the agreed time frame as the next booking will be waiting.

The duties as a beauty practitioner include cleaning the treatment room after use and resetting the room to its standard for future use. Also, the cleaning job would be shared between the therapists. Another duty is to share responsibility of working in reception when the receptionist is absent. The main task and duty is performing the treatment services.

In order to ensure the treatment was cost-effective, it was important that the service procedure was carried out within a restricted time frame. In that case, it was found that the stage of consultation was the first to be shortened. If it was a returned client, it was sometimes advised to be skipped even though updating the information on the client record card is important according to the taught standard. The treatment service had to completed within the agreed time. Thus, care advice was sometimes given at a later stage or the end of the treatment, whenever the time fitted. After the client left, there was not much time to record the treatment details, let alone evaluating and reflecting on the performance. If the time was allowed between bookings, promoting the products and/or future treatment was necessary. However, when the time was insufficient, it was observed that the majority of the beauty therapists tend to skip the stage of consultation, as some of the clients were return clients.

During the time working in the salon, the permission to observe other beauty therapists' performance was granted, so long as consent was obtained from the

client and therapist. An example of the observation follows: after obtaining consent from both, on the day, the observation was started from the senior therapist preparing the treatment room. She prepared the new towels covering the couch, bowls of warm water, spare towels, products on the trolley and the tools and equipment for micro-demabrasion. She also lighted the candles, dimmed the light and waited for the client to arrive. The client was running late due to the traffic. When the client arrived, she led her to the treatment straightaway. The client was booked in for a micro-demabrasion and was a return client, so she seemed to recognise her way in the salon. It can be seen that their relationship was close and the trust had been built. In their conversation, she could not wait to share her happiness and anxiety for the preparation of her wedding with the beauty therapist.

The client was advised to prepare themselves for the treatment. The therapist had a quick check on contra-indications and a few questions for skin analysis, the treatment was carried out almost straightaway without a proper and thorough consultation. During the treatment application, their conversation was not the focus of the study, but it was found that the therapist had made some knowledge claims[20] to the client regarding the benefits of technique and products that they used on her. This kind of knowledge claim is very commonly observed in the beauty salon (Vickers 1997).

After the treatment, the client was given brief care advice. The reason given for giving only brief care advice to the client was because it was not the first time the client had micro-demabrasion. The therapist only briefly recorded the treatment she had and no evaluation was carried out. Similar detailed

[20] Knowledge claim is defined as "a statement about the world"…such as "massage improves lymph flow" (Vickers 1997:63).

observations were undertaken for waxing and pedicure treatments that are carried out by other junior therapists. Similar points were found.

5.2.2.2 Auto-ethnographic experience as a lecturer/assessor

The reason for discussing the role as a lecturer as well as an assessor in the auto-ethnographic experiences of the UK is because teaching and assessing learners is part of the duties of a lecturer. Every lecturer will be requested to attend a training course of Training, Assessment, Quality Assurance (TAQA) and gain certification enabling them to assess and support learners in the FE sector. For HVET, there is no requirement of obtaining TAQA. However, in CHEs, specialist lecturers normally teach across FE to HVET, so all of them will require one.

Regarding auto-ethnographic experience as a lecturer in the UK, it was found that the lecturer's duties and tasks involved more than just teaching and assessing, compared to the role as a learner or a practitioner. In this case, this section will only discuss the features relevant to the study, which are sub-divided into three main aspects: teaching, assessing and the Quality Assurance (QA) process. The correlation between them and the important elements that connect each other is shown in Figure 5-4. Because it was an auto-ethnographic experience, the findings may just reflect the phenomena observed within the hair and beauty department of the College only.

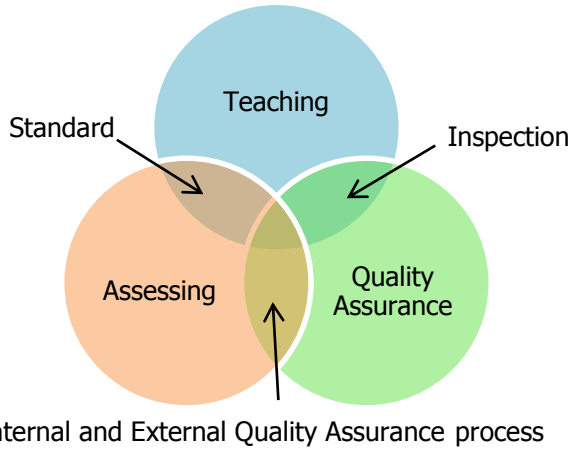


Figure 5-4: The correlation between teaching, assessing and quality assurance

5.2.2.2.1 Teaching and Assessing

Teaching and assessing in vocational practice is closely linked by standardised benchmarks. In this session, both practice in FE and HE will be discussed. In the UK, the lecturers can be assessors, but the assessors are not necessarily allowed to teach if they are not qualified to teach. The reason is because they have different requirements for teaching and assessing. In the UK, the requirements for being a lecturer seem less rigid. From the job specification for recruiting a lecturer, industrial experience and relevant qualifications are normally essential as long as the level of qualification is equivalent to the level s/he is teaching or above: however, from the observation in auto-ethnography, in this field, whether the applicant has held a degree level of qualification appears not so important regardless of teaching in the FE or HE sector, though academic qualification with a full teaching qualification has recently become a desirable criterion due to the demand of raising standards in HE. In the FE sector, lecturers have to complete the award in Preparing to Teach in the Lifelong Learning Sector (PTLLS) as an entry level to teach in the first year of teaching and will be requested to achieve a full teaching qualification within five years of their teaching career.

The people who may be involved in the assessment are shown below.

- The candidate: They are the ones involved in their own assessment, so that their progress and competence are being assessed.
- The primary assessor: The assessor is expecting to make judgements by using the relevant assessment criteria to decide whether the candidate has met the prescribed standards or criteria.

- The Internal Verifier (IV)[21]: The IV is to conduct Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) of the assessment process. Also, the IV is responsible for implementing an internal verification strategy.

There are three assessment stages, namely the assessment plan stage that occurs prior to the assessment; the assessment itself; and the feedback giving stage after the assessment (suggested from TAQA training as an assessor). The learners should be involved at the planning stage of the assessment arrangements. The assessment arrangements will be decided in a meeting with the candidates, to plan their assessment; when it is going to take place; what unit is going to be assessed on; and by whom. Learners shall have an opportunity to discuss the assessment plan and make their own suggestions and choices. If there are any special assessment arrangements, then they need to be identified and agreed prior to the assessment and make sure that the assessment process is fair. Additionally, they can require any additional help if needed. In addition, the candidate should be informed of the assessment method proposed with the assessment criteria for the unit during the planning meeting.

All the assessment methods have their strengths and weaknesses, so it is necessary to identify suitable methods and use a variety of methods to complement each other to ensure the assessment decision is reliable, valid and fair. On the date of assessment, the assessor needs to confirm the assessment

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[21] IVs are now called Internal Quality Assurers (IQAs) and EVs are External Quality Assurers (EQAs) for City & Guilds qualifications (C&G 2012). In order to avoid confusion with the using the acronyms of Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) and External Quality Assurance (EQA), IV and EV is used throughout to refer to the Internal and External Quality Assurers.

objective(s) with the learner prior to the assessment to make sure that the candidate is aware of what he/she is being assessed on. They should also put the candidate at ease while the candidate is being assessed if he/she lacks confidence on their performance.

Assessment can provide guidance for selection, diagnosing learning needs, developing a learning programme and certificating achievement (Ecclestone 1994). If assessment is considered as guidance (or a form of learning), then feedback given is an indication of how to improve the performance. Therefore, the approach of giving constructive feedback to learners could make a difference on their learning path. Giving some specific examples could avoid ambiguity. Petty (2004) advises that the feedback given should start from positive feedback to let learners know what they have done well, then what they could have done better and identify their learning needs. However, the assessment decision will be based on the feedback from the assessment performance. If the learner is dissatisfied with the assessment decision, the appeal procedure should be available for the learner to have their voice heard.

The purpose and principle of the appeal procedure applies to all students in the College and is designed to support students who wish to seek a review of an assessment decision.

> "*Assessment should be undertaken in line with the national standards and relevant Awarding Body and College procedures. Staff should ensure that they adhere to these prescribed procedures and that they are explained to students*" (Leicester College 2006:p1).

Learners should be informed of the Appeals procedures prior to the assessment. There are three stages of appeals procedure. The learner will review the assessment with the assessor at the first stage. If the learner is still dissatisfied with the justification from the assessor, then he/she can appeal further to have the Curriculum Area Manager, IVs or the other Assessors involved. The case will be referred to EVs if the learner is still dissatisfied with

the outcome of the stage two (Leicester College 2006). From observations, it was found that oftentimes learners just gave up appealing because the process could be lengthy and tedious. They would prefer to just be reassessed.

The standards and standardisation is the key to connect both roles of a lecturer and an assessor. As the previous data demonstrated, NOS were the standards adopted to develop training programmes and are widely implemented into FE curricula: thus, regardless of whether teaching or assessing, the specification for teaching would meet the criteria for assessing. It is important to address that even with a standard, every lecturer and assessor still maintains their styles of teaching and assessing. It does not diminish their creativity and uniqueness. In this case, not only were standardisation processes held to share good and bad practice, but also to clarify the arguments between differences.

It was observed from the auto-ethnographic experience that HVET seems to be swinging between vocational route and academic path. In other words, it seems still to be finding its own stand. Currently, the majority of beauty or make-up programmes in HVET level are mainly established in FECs and the standard either partly acquires from NOS or other domains such as the HE Art and Design subject benchmark. The consistency is no longer to be seen in HVET. The structure of teaching and assessing in HVET seems to be stretched from FE, yet the academic standard is still miles away from HE.

The reason raised could be discussed in two phenomena manifested. Firstly, through auto-ethnographic observation, it was found that some lecturers in HVET do not have a degree. The argument here is not to argue whether possessing a degree would make them a better lecturer, but without having experience of HE academic training, they may not realise the differences in the levels of development in developing learners' ability in 'learning how to learn' and 'learning how to think'. It was observed that the lecturers maintain the style of teaching and assessing in FE to the learners in HVET. This may be considered as kind of supportive gesture - on the other hand, learners have

been criticised as being spoon-fed by the members of the teaching team in LC. Secondly, HVET learners are not prepared for what the academic standard is. Even though academic support was in place at FECs, the attendance showed that learners had very little interest in the academic subjects. However, using Lester's (1999b) metaphor of a map, they only taught HE learners how to read a more advanced complicated 'map', rather than provoking the ability to make their own map.

5.2.2.2.2 Assessing and QA process

Every assessor is naturally requested to attend the workshops and obtain TAQA, which provides different levels of training courses to develop the knowledge and skills in assessing and verifying activities, and to progress further to be an IV after being qualified to be an assessor. With TAQA training, the assessors are aware of their role, responsibility, the assessment strategies, approaches and the tactics of giving feedback. The focus is on candidates/learners to ensure that they are treated fairly. The assessment process is safe, the evidence collected is reliable and authentic and the assessment decision is fair and valid.

Moreover, the assessors are guided through the process and verified every year through Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) process by IV to assure that the assessment quality is carried out. The IQA process mainly emphasises assessors. It helps assessors to view the assessment process from a sophisticated perspective and allow assessors needs for an improvement to be identified. With TAQA, if it is to provide training for assessors to identify learners' needs for an improvement, then IVs can be said to be trained to identify assessors' needs.

IQA activities include risk assessment, interim/summative sampling, monitoring assessment practice, standardisation, supporting assessors. The function of IQA is to make sure the assessors are assessing in a similar fashion across all

centres (i.e. colleges) through verifying the assessment decisions and processes. The job role and responsibility of an IV includes verifying assessment, developing and supporting assessors and managing quality of delivery. It is important to note that the IQA process is designed towards the assessors not the candidates. More importantly, the purpose of IQA is not to assess the assessors, but to monitor the quality of assessment and to provide support to the assessors in all ways. And the purpose of monitoring the assessment process and decisions is to ensure that the candidates will be judged fairly and the quality of assessment is assured. If there is any reservation by the IV, an action plan will be put in place to support the assessors.

All the theoretical knowledge that has been learned on the taught course of TAQA needs to be presented in the portfolio and applied to the practical observations. According to Holden and McGrath (1992), shadowing is an effective approach to increase the shadower's understanding of the role and practice, especially learning from experienced and qualified individuals. As a trainee verifier, in order for the researcher to understand the IQA process better, shadowing the experienced verifier and observing other IVs verified the assessment process was undertaken, to identify the support that may be needed and to give a constructive feedback to the assessor.

Following the guidelines of IQA, the practices have been carried out by the researcher including observing other assessors' assessment practice, questioning candidates, providing feedback on observation and filling out the online trackers for tracking the records of IQA. Observing the assessor's assessment practice before, during and after the candidate's assessment is important to identify whether the assessor's practice has met the standard and any support the assessor may need.

After observing the feedback given to the candidates by the assessor, the IV needs to confirm with the candidates to ensure that the candidates are aware

of their rights, the assessment criteria, the policies relevant to assessment such as the appeal procedure, equal opportunities and so forth. In addition, they need to ensure that the logbook was filled in correctly.

Meanwhile, there were some records that need to be filled out, such as the assessor's tracker, the group IV tracker and so on. The assessor's tracker is mainly for recording the units that the assessors need to be verified internally. The group tracker contains the sampling plan and the record of actual action of samples. At the end of the process, the IV observes the feedback given by the assessors to the candidate and then fills out the feedback form for the assessor on the College's share point.

From the observations, it was found that there were some good and bad practices identified. It is important to remark that new assessors and experienced assessors (approximately over 5 years assessing experience) are all considered as high risk assessors in IQA risk assessment, according to the lead IV of LC (UKEE-E). Those high risk assessors would be the priority of IQA to ensure the standard is maintained.

Apart from IQA process, there is a further method of External Quality Assurance (EQA) used to check the laboratory's performance and audit the samples employing an external agency or facility. For instance, the awarding/examining body would assign an examiner as an External Verifier (EV) to visit the institution/training centre. This type of layered auditing for learners, assessors and training centre's performance is to assure the standards and assessment quality were maintained.

However, some aspects that might affect the assessment quality were observed. First, realistically, some lecturers/assessors had to assess learners and manage the classroom at the same time, because some of the learners in the classroom were not ready to be assessed and were given other tasks. This multitasking phenomenon distracted and exhausted lecturers or assessors.

Second, time is another issue. Due to the budget, the assessors have had to assess too many learners, so the quality of assessment was reduced and they were even short of time for giving a proper feedback. In order to improve the quality of assessment practice, the assessors need some assistance and a restriction on the numbers of candidates being assessed, which is fairer on both candidates and assessor.

Furthermore, it there was not enough time for assessors to give feedback to learners right after the assessment for an immediate effect. Also, when an IQA is undertaken, there was often insufficient time to allow the IV to give feedback to the assessor in person verbally and therefore it was usually only given in written form. It was emphasised that the feedback should focus on supporting assessors' needs rather than finding faults. Creating a Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) and using a checklist may be an idea for the IV to confirm the practice and support needs. Moreover, it will be more constructive and have less influence on the working relationship.

Based on the nature of beauty and artistic make-up programmes, the individual's subjectivity and interpretation may affect the assessment decision. Thus, the IQA process needs to be executed and monitored based on objective criteria and attitudes. After a couple of practices on verifying other assessors internally, it was found that the system of QA in the UK was well established, but the variable factor is the people who are involved in the QA system.

5.2.2.2.3 QA process and Teaching

The QA process discussed here is aiming at that applied to ensure the standard of teaching is maintained and the quality of teaching is assured. The standard and quality of teaching is observed to ensure that learning takes place. One of

the QA processes is Ofsted[22] inspection for the FE sector. Although Ofsted's inspection does not apply to HVET, observation for every lecturer, Trainer for Assessor (TA) and Technician as long as they are in contact with learners in any form of learning for internal developmental purpose is still required.

Observation of teaching is part of the QA process and job content regardless of whether it is to be observed or to observe others. In order to maintain the quality of teaching, the observation of teaching and learning, including developmental and graded observation, is carried out annually. For example, at LC, every lecturer is requested to have a graded observation every other year and developmental observation will be carried out in between. The strategies may vary in other institutions. The grade for internal observation is divided into four levels, namely outstanding (grade 1), good (grade 2), requires improvement (grade 3) and inadequate (grade 4). The grading criteria are developed according to The Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (Ofsted). The inspection normally takes place every three years. The notification has been updated from 48 hours (Ofsted 2014) to 15 minutes before the inspector's arrival or even without notice (Ofsted 2015). Inspectors will no longer grade the lesson, but grade the overall achievement of learning, including health & safety and class management (Ofsted 2015).

The auto-ethnographic experience as a lecturer found that QA for teaching and learning is inconclusive as it highlighted some positive and negative aspects. Ofsted's inspection did provoke tensions to the department, but the tensions were actually engendered directly from the department. It is believed that the purpose of inspection or observation is positive, but it sometimes brought a

[22] Ofsted is the Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills. We inspect and regulate services that care for children and young people, and services providing education and skills for learners of all ages (Ofsted 2016).

negative effect as there are so many variables in the teaching and learning environment.

The advantage of teaching observation is to demonstrate the lecturer's ability in teaching and effectiveness of learning. The disadvantage is that it has become a formalised performance to demonstrate the teaching strategies, management skills and paperwork in order to show off the strategies of 'all singing and dancing' as UKEE-B suggested. The observation could also be overly looking into details.

The most important criterion should be teaching and learning itself, which was the focus of observation by Ofsted, not the piles of paperwork to prove the effort. The amount of stress for lecturers and the variables that could happen unexpectedly in the QA process were observed and confirmed by colleagues. The strategy of how to provoke learners' interest to learn 'how to learn' and 'how to think' seems to be becoming blurred.

Developmental observation could be carried out by the managers within the department or colleagues. Different observers weight criteria differently for the observation. It was found that using peer observation as developmental observation is more effective as less stress was involved compared to graded observation or inspection by Ofsted. The experience gained by carrying out the peer observation is to have a better understanding of the observation criteria from a different perspective. Not only has the grading criteria been comprehended, but also observation of how others placed those criteria into practice.

The common feedback from lecturers is that there were too many criteria that need to be met and demonstrated within a certain amount of time. Realistically, it is very challenging to meet all the criteria in one lesson as there are a lot of details that need to be considered and embedded into the lesson plan, which may not necessarily fit the purpose of the lesson.

5.3 Analysis of data from Taiwan

The methods adopted for collecting the data from Taiwan are document analysis, observations at workplace and expert interviews. Document analysis was commenced at the same time as the literature review and continued throughout the study. Observations at workplace aimed at identifying the problems through the service procedure and professional performance. Expert interviews were designed to identify the competence expected at the point of graduation and required by industry.

There were two stages of data collection from Taiwan. The first, interview stage, focused on discovering the value of a beauty business perceived by both education and industry experts. In addition, it aimed at identifying the effectiveness of communication between education and industry and the approaches both sectors have been using to develop their learners'/professionals' competence. Education and industry interviewees were also requested to evaluate these approaches' effectiveness. Identification of competence required for beauty professionals was embedded in the interviews. The beauty practitioners' performance at work, for FE and HE level beauty graduates, was rated by the industrial experts only.

The relevant documents analysed for Taiwan are the beauty curricula, to compare against the UK's, and the government funding projects for bridging the gap between education and industry. In addition, skills certification is another important element to discuss, as it is part of beauty education as a measure of competence.

5.3.1 Analysis of Taiwanese documents

5.3.1.1 Beauty curricula and programme specification

The higher level of beauty programmes in Taiwan has been through some development and expansion since it was launched in 1999 (see Section 2.3.1.2). By 2013, there were in total 32 universities with 38 beauty related

programmes (see Appendix H), compared to only 12 universities establishing beauty programmes in 2008 when this research initially started. In the past, the subject of beauty was categorised under Home Economics (see Section 2.3.1.2), so the curriculum had to contain broad knowledge and cover the relevant field of home economics and beauty as widely as possible and the curriculum design only reached the surface of the subject's knowledge and skills. The strategy for the curriculum design in beauty was broad and intended to cover as much of the relevant subjects as possible to interest learners according to the interviewees (EE01, EE13).

The HE beauty curriculum can be divided into two categories: mandatory and elective/optional modules. Within mandatory modules are included general modules such as Military Training, Taiwan/China Modern History and Physical Education/Sport and so forth and subject modules. These modules are compulsory for all the qualifications in Taiwan. Elective/optional modules could be chosen by learners to meet their interests and learning plan: however, some modules are not guaranteed if the module is not selected by enough learners. Therefore, the option will be moved down to the second or third choice.

In Taiwan, a four-year degree requires a minimum of 128 credits for graduation (MOE 2011). According to the Enforcement Rules of the University Act article 23, each credit is equivalent to 18 teaching hours in one semester (Zhang 2012; MOE 2014). It was questioned whether learners can really grasp at the subject knowledge in depth within this small credit value: this point was supported by the interviewee EE10.

From Appendix H, it can be seen that the beauty related programmes are associated with science, management, fashion and health care. In order to attract learners and to meet a variety of interests, the curriculum provides a wide range of subjects, ranging from cosmetology and style to cosmetic

manufacturing, even across aesthetic medicine[23], traditional Chinese medicine, nutrition, biotechnology, art and so forth. The broad content means that it is really hard to find the focus of the study and show progressive development. The detailed analysis can be seen in Appendix C.

From the analysis, it can be seen that the university level of vocational education lacks focus and advanced knowledge and skills (TransWorld University 2013). The curriculum design is too broad and clearly it lacks depth. While reviewing curricula, it was found that the Taiwan beauty curriculum only contains breadth of knowledge and skills, but lacks depth and progression in learning. The breadth of knowledge and skills shown in the modules has a limited depth, because the modules have only a small credit value. It would be questionable whether learners could grasp the knowledge and skills of aesthetic medicine, for instance, in a module with 2 or 3 credits. The practical skills modules did not specify the depth of the subject.

5.3.1.2 Government funding projects

In recent years, the Taiwanese government has faced a consequence of excessive deregulation of education policy as this is not only resulting in Taiwanese people that are highly educated with low achievement in employment, but also the unemployment rate has gone up (Wang 2011; Wang 2013) (see Section 2.3.1.1). In 2010, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan promoted a proposal of 'Reshaping Technological-Vocational Education'

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[23] Tan (2007:13) gives a closest definition of 'aesthetic medicine' that "it is a practice of 'medicalised' beauty therapy". For clinical practice in Taiwan, beauty therapists are only allowed to be involved in the care, before and after surgical procedures and medical treatments. The Department of Health in Taiwan rectifies the name to 'Aesthetic Medicine', including optical treatments such as Laser, ILP, Ultrasound; injection type of treatements such as Botox, Hyaluronic acid, Collagen injection and high risk surgeries such as Liposuction, face lift and so on (Lin 2013; Wei & Yang 2013).

(Figure 5-5), which contains five development dimensions and ten strategies (MOE 2010a). This has become one of the most important areas of national policy. Lin et al. (2008) point out various problems that occur in Taiwan's work placement schemes at HE level, such as, inadequate legislation and regulations, the difficulty of finding work placement opportunities, universities lacking human resources to be in charge of the scheme and lecturers that are reluctant to participate in the scheme. However, the gap between education and industry might be also caused by various other reasons and issues such as the lecturers' lack of industrial experiences, the unclear orientation and questionable quality of technical-vocational education and so forth.

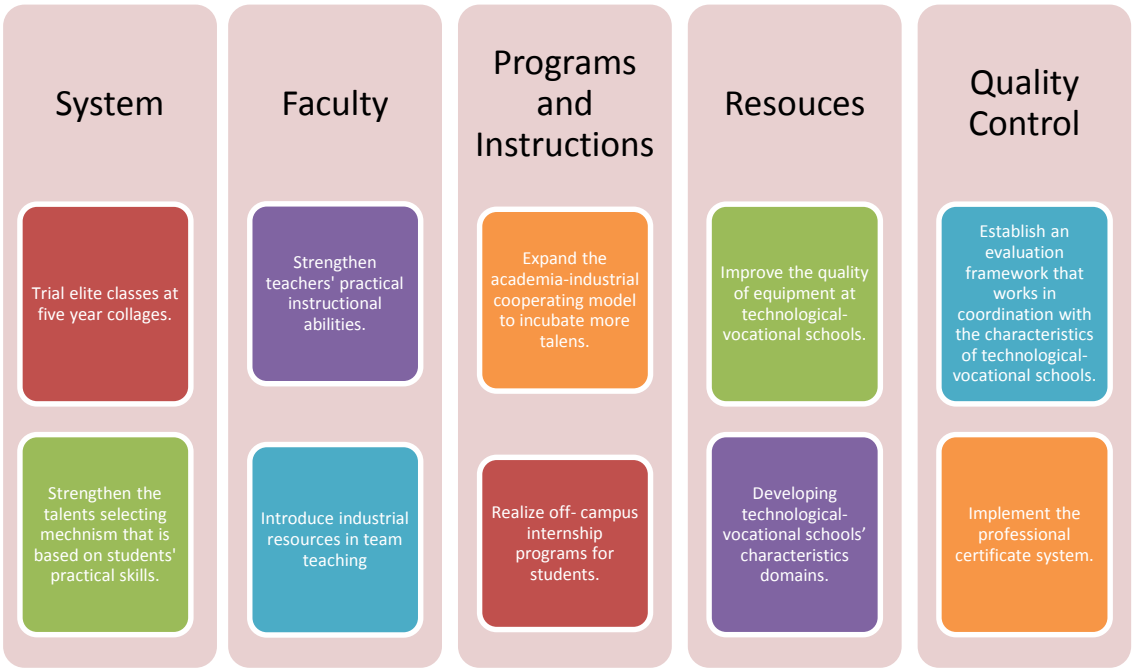

Figure 5-5: Five development dimensions and ten strategies (MOE 2010a)

In order to bridge a connection between education and industry, MOE has promoted various types of co-operative funding projects for HE learners, such as 'Dual System of Vocational Training Project', 'The Last Mile' and 'Industrial-Academic Co-operation Plan' (MOE 2011:25). The Industrial-Academic Co-operation project was launched in 2006 (MOE 2012:5) and the purpose of the project is mainly through the close collaboration between education and

industry to co-ordinate industries providing work experience opportunities for students during their learning journey of vocational education, whether subsidized or facility sharing (MOE 2012:1). Not only could these projects prepare learners with industrial experience while learning, but also provide an opportunity for lecturers to update their industrial knowledge.

The 'Dual System of Vocational Training Project' adapted Germany's dual system launched in 2003 (Chen et al. 2008). It is, so far, only running at two-year junior college programs in three technological universities (Ling Tung University, Ta Hwa University of Science and Technology and Chienkuo Technology University) , co-operating with three beauty related companies (Jourdeness, M., Li Spa and Socie Spa[24]) since 2012 (Workforce Development Agency 2010). Learners work three days at a workplace and study for two to three days back at school for theoretical input. Chen et al. (2008) evaluated the project and found that the core competences required by the industries could not connect to the curriculum even though the project was considered to be a success: in other words, there is a gap that education does not meet with the practice in industry. Also, Chen et al. highlight the cultural differences at a national and organisational level that should be considered when importing the system to Taiwan. Overall, the official website was poorly presented and lacking in further information.

For HVET learners, the most common type of Industry-Education collaboration should be work placement, which is embedded into the curriculum with credit values. In recent years, 'The Last Mile Programme' and 'Industry-Academia Co-operation/Collaboration Project' have become a popular choice outside of the curriculum in both FE and HE sectors through government funding support. The

[24] Jourdeness (佐登妮絲), M., Li (媚力**)** Spa and Socie (施舒雅) Spa are the names of the beauty companies in Taiwan.

reason for choosing these projects as examples is to explore the intentions the Taiwanese government have for bridging the gap between education and industry. These types of project are either sending learners out to experience the real world or inviting experts to bring in a real world practice to learners. Learners could have both, but the inquiry is why the gap still exists?

The first implementation measure for education and industry collaboration was established in 1974, but it took almost two decades for the Taiwanese government to notice its importance (Lu 2009). The pilot for the 'Industry-Academia Co-operation/ Collaboration Project' was launched in 2006 (Lu 2009; Chen 2016). The purpose of the project was not only to encourage vocational high schools and technical universities to collaborate with industry, but also to utilise industry's strengths to complement education's weakness (Chen 2016). This is a seven-year development project from FE level upgrading to HE with a program of five days at a workplace and one day back to university a week, which is very similar to the UK work-based learning programme in the FE sector. One of the interviewees (EE01), a chairman of department, disapproved of the work-based learners' performance back at the university.

> *"… these students even had a problem to come to the university. The lesson started at 9 a.m. and they arrived at 10 a.m….. I wanted to tell them off….the attitude is not right. Did the tutors say anything? No, they did not because they might be in another class too…"* (EE01)

The similar viewpoint was highlight by one of tutors from LC of the UK, who was in supporting work-based learners, in the informal conversation. She commented that one day a week is insufficient for them to really learn something as they were too tired to concentrate in the classroom. This seems to be a challenge for both Taiwan and the UK.

From the structure of this project, learners have a very limited formal education at university and received the majority of learning at the workplace. It is worth thinking whether it is a right move to replace a 'formal vocational education' by

'learning by doing' in industry. Without establishing the same standards for both education and industry with appropriate regulations and policies implemented, the quality of teaching & learning could be varied. A chairman of department has raised his concern that some industrial trainers have brought in some inappropriate practices to learners (EE01). In addition, sometimes, business scope could be limited and too specific; whereas, with university-based education, learners' development structure should be holistic at the beginning then gradually narrowed down to the specialist area.

Also, the 'Team Teaching'[25] (Chen 2011) and 'Teachers participating in public/private enterprises' service'[26] (Xin n.d.) schemes were implemented to improve learners' practical and industrial knowledge. Lecturers' practical skills were strengthened through the scheme of Team Teaching (Lin et al. 2014). In the Team Teaching scheme, the lecturers are the main role and the industrial expert co-teaches (Lin et al. 2014:36). Chen (2011) highlights the benefit of team teaching on both sides of 'teaching' and 'learning'. Team Teaching provides an opportunity for lecturers to update on the latest industrial techniques as well as learners. However, the feedback from Cheng's (2010) study is that learners feedback towards the scheme of Team Teaching is varied. Some learners found that the scheme is beneficial, especially they found that the lecturers are not so familiar with practical skills and latest devices: while,

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[25] 'Industrial experts' in the Team Teaching need to meet one of four criteria in order to be eligible: 1) College graduate nationally or internationally with more than five years areas of expertise; or have more than ten years areas of expertise with substantial achievement. 2) Have been candidates, coaches, examiners of national professional competition. 3) Has been awarded a national medal of professional competition, or a certificate of honour. 4) Others as long as they are considered to be eligible by the institution (MOE 2010b).

[26] A similar type of work placement or work experience for lecturers to participate the service in industry.

the others argued that some industrial experts lack teaching skills. It reflects that few educators and instructors shared their knowledge and experience in the preparation of the lessons. One of the educational experts (EE10) disapproved of this approach as there had been *no* meeting between two parties prior the sessions: in other words, there is very little communication between industrial experts and the lecturer. Quite a few educational experts even claimed that they were sitting in the classroom and learning at the same time as well as the learners. In this regard, it would not be possible to maximise the benefit for learners. The Taiwanese government planned to bridge the gap, but somehow, it formed another gap during the process.

The latter project is perceived as a form of work placement for lecturers to gain some industrial experience, because lecturers have been criticised that the majority of lecturers lack this (Zhang 2012; Du 2004). Zhang (2012) also takes the beauty industry as an example to demonstrate whether a higher level of qualification is required. An educational expert, who is also a consultant in industry and currently practicing, remarked that

> "*I think that the most severe problem existing now is that the teachers are unfamiliar with the industry.*" (EE10)

The 'Teachers participating in public/private enterprises' service' is the government's funding project for lecturers requesting them to have a field experience in industry as another form of Continuing Professional Development (CPD). EE10 called it a depth-learning programme for a lecturer for 40 days. This can be considered as a similar type of work placement for lecturers. It seems less popular for lecturers to apply as very few of them are willing to sacrifice their holiday for CPD.

The interviewee [27] (EE10), who was also the promoter of this funding project, had a meeting with a chairman of department with one of the HVET institutions. Through their conversation, it was found that either lecturers would not sacrifice their holiday to have a field experience in the industry or it may be as EE10 suggested, which is that they might be scared of working in industry as they seem to lack interest, even if it is just for a short period of time.

In the past, one or two lecturers in one institute could have one to two days short training courses during the summer holiday. The majority of interviewees from education feedback that these events were popular and the places are limited because it was a rare opportunity for lecturers to attend courses taught by industrial experts and funded by the government.

Certainly, with the issue of lecturers lacking industrial experience, it was partly because of the workloads lecturers were given and the employment policy and structure of higher education in Taiwan, declared a chairman of department, EE01. However, if some of them were working part-time in industry, they would be likely to be connected with some involvement of profit. In the interviews, EE06, EE07, EE08 and EE11 have shown the lack of trust whenever the agenda involved lecturers or government with industry, as the concern of collusion would be raised.

Although the Taiwanese government has made an effort to promote these programmes, the inspection of the outcome and evaluation of each project at a state level is very limited. Some interviewees such as EE06, EE07 and EE10 also commented that the government has lacked long-term vision because these

[27] EE10 invited me to be at present for a meeting with a chairman of department of HVET institution regarding the depth-learning programme for lecturers.

funding projects could be terminated anytime once the national budget has run out.

5.3.1.3 Occupational License System (OLS)

In OLS, the National Occupational License (NOL) in beauty is one of the two conditions for qualifying individuals to be able to work in the beauty sector in Taiwan, apart from obtaining beauty related qualification. For obtaining NOL, the candidates need to pass the knowledge and skill test through the Skills Certification (SC) process. NOL will be issued by the government as a vocational certificate allowing them to work and practise in the beauty sector (Liu et al. 2011). In other words, SC is an authenticated procedure for NOL within OLS. It is important to note that obtaining NOL is not compulsory but strongly promoted, encouraged and recommended to industry and individuals by Taiwanese government. Thus, obtaining NOL has become an important part of beauty education and training in Taiwan.

In order to improve the skill level and the development of the economy and society, the Taiwanese government published the "Regulation for Technician Certification and Licensing" and launched it in 1972 (Workforce Development Agency 2011; Ministry of Labor 2015). Indeed, skill tests have been conducted since 1974. However, the purpose of raising skill level has not been met as it has been criticised to be completely out of touch with industry and failed to promote its credibility (Wu 2008).

The function of the OLS was expected to reduce the unemployment rate, correct the misconceptions of a diploma-oriented culture, minimise the pre-job training costs, safeguard consumers' health and safety, improve the standard and quality of service, develop breadth of knowledge and skills, simulate the real world practice, boost confidence, self-motivation and self-esteem and so forth (Huang n.d.; Chen 2004). Obviously, it is overloaded with too much expectation to be practically achievable.

The 'certification' and 'license' terms could be very confusing. Kleiner (2000) distinguished the difference between 'Occupational Licensing' and 'Certification' by emphasising the quality of the performance. He defined that "Occupation Licensing is as a process where entry into an occupation requires the permission of the government, and the state requires some demonstration of a minimum degree of competency." (Kleiner 2000:191). Kleiner (2000) also cited from Rottenberg (1980) that:

> *"A certification permits any person to perform the relevant tasks, but the government agency administers an examination and certifies those who have passed and the level of skill or knowledge." (p191)*

This definition could be used to justify for Taiwan's OLS as it has not involved any regulatory bodies. In practice, the National Occupational License does not reflect the competence and current industrial practice.

The current Taiwanese Minister of Education, Shi-Hua Wu, expects Taiwan's VET system and OLS could be recognised internationally: however, Tan (2015) criticises that the difference between 'certificate' and 'license' should be distinguished first before making such a big statement. Tan clarifies that 'certificate' could be issued by the contracted organisation; whereas, 'license' can only be validated by the authorised professional body. However, he compares the UK's NVQs with Taiwan's OLS, which seems inappropriate as they are completely different systems.

There are some criteria to be classified as a 'license'. Take an example of the policy for occupational and professional licensing in Nevada (Bureau 2012), where an independent professional licensing board needs to be established with legislation and regulations that are in place to govern them. Although they have different terms, conditions and requirements, they are under government's supervision and regulatory bodies. Taiwanese government just put the two terms together as an 'Occupational License System (OLS)' without legal provision. Taiwanese people are misled that the skills certificate is

equivalent to an occupational license. Lacking a clear definition and identification of 'skill certification' and 'occupational license' may affect its credibility. Nevertheless, in order to truly reflect what it is in Taiwan, the term of 'National Occupational License (NOL)' is tentatively used for this study even though it is not one.

The reason for analysing the OLS is because it is one of the important criteria for achieving qualifications[28] and working in the beauty industry in Taiwan. Taiwanese beauty education is almost designed around the training for skill certification (Cheng et al. 2004) in order to achieve a high successful rate of obtaining NOL. In this case, the beauty curriculum has placed a great emphasis on the training for SC, which has distorted the formal beauty education.

Three levels of skill test, classified into Class A, B and C[29], were established (Finaly et al. 1998; Lee & Hwang 1998; Chen 2010) and the categories that cannot be distributed into three levels are allocated in Single level (Wu 2008). There are only some occupations that have been advanced to Class A. The NOL in Beauty has, so far, only been developed up to Class B and C (Yeh 2010). The purpose of promoting NOL is to enhance practitioners' skill and knowledge in order to promote the quality of the service.

In the beauty sector, Class C was established in 1991 and launched in the following year: a total number of 43,517 Class C Beauty certificates were issued up to 1996, which was the year Class B was launched (Yeh & Chen 2006; Xu 1996; Cheng 2011). Soon after that, due to the rush in promoting Class B, the

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[28] NOL is not a compulsory criterion for achieving qualification, but it was used to motivate for learners to obtain it before graduation. In other words, they are allowed to graduate with one or without one as long as the academic criteria are met.

[29] Class A (Technologist) is the highest level of NOL; Class B (Technician) is advanced level and Class C (Skill Worker) is the basic level (Chen 2010:14-15).

examiners were established without a proper and thorough training. From my previously auto-ethnographic experience in Taiwan, the fairness of assessment, assessment competence of examiners and accreditation of Class B were questioned (Chen 2004) and it was quickly closed down as the researcher was informed that their SC test was cancelled. In 2000, Class B was re-launched. The ratio of certificate holders that were employed in the beauty industry increased from 11.0% in 1991 to 79.1% in 1999 (Yeh & Chen, 2006). According to the statistics of the Bureau of Employment and Vocational Training[30] (2012) in Taiwan, up to June 2012, the total number of Beautify certifications is 302,437, including Class C 281,306 and Class B 21,131. These statistics reflect the growing demand for higher levels of NOL, as the number grew almost five times more for Class B compared with 2004 (Yeh & Chen 2006). Class C beauty skill certificate may be recognised as it is considered as an entry level of the beauty sector (Yeh 2010); whereas, Class B can be seen as lacking accreditation because none of the industrial experts required a Class B.

In order to promote the OLS policy, the Taiwanese government has promoted that beauty practitioners should be equipped with a minimum of Class C in order to work in the beauty industry (Chen 2004): therefore, the curriculum was modified to meet this criterion to ensure that every FE learner graduated with a Class C. Additionally, the government suggested that the beauty industry should give a pay raise for the NOL holder. However, the industry does not comply with this policy as there is no regulation to reinforce the policy (Wu 2008:102). According to Chen (2004), the industry does not pay any difference to the people with or without NOL. At the end, OLS has only become a means

[30] Now it is upgraded to Workforce of Development Agency, Ministry of Labour.

for upgrading a qualification and educational inspection/evaluation, rather than an indicator of competence (Xu 2015).

The regulation is composed of sixty-four articles within ten sections (Skill Evaluation Centre of Workforce Development Agency 2014), which only states general information like a specification. The skill certification test is composed of written (theory/knowledge test) and field tests (practical/skill test). The written test has adopted a multiple choice approach to examine the practitioner's theoretical knowledge of relevant subjects. The exam questions are composed from the relevant subjects shown below. The passing grade is 60 out of 100 points in the written test. There is also another stage of written test, which is a practical test of muscles and bones structure. However, it is criticised that the examination questions have never been changed since it launched (TVBS 2012).

Class C	Work ethics	Skin structure	Skin care	Hand and food care and beautify	Make-up design	Knowledge of cosmetics	Public health	Public safety
Class B	Work ethics	Management	Summary of human physiology	Professional skin care	Make-up and styling design	Knowledge of cosmetics	Public health	Public safety

Table 5-11: The ranges of SC Skills test (Skill Evaluation Centre of Workforce Development Agency 2014)

The practical test includes three measures: make-up, skin care and hygiene. The difficulty and complexity will depend on the level of skill test. Regarding the practical test, it is carried out as a fake performance to show the student's ability in front of the examiners, rather than demonstrating their ability of being able to carry out a treatment as it would normally take place at the workplace.

Class C and B require different levels of skill test. Candidates will be required to demonstrate their techniques, professional attitude and hygienic practice throughout the test. Apart from hygienic practice embedded in the make-up

and skin care sections, candidates will be requested to perform disinfection and a hygienic test in front of the examiner.

Make-up test

The make-up skill test has shown a level of progression from Class C to Class B. From the content of the test, their level is only equivalent to Level 2 and 3 in the UK. Candidates are required to prepare the skin for make-up application, but there is no skin analysis or contra-indication check prior to the application. However, some experts criticised that the make-up style is too old fashioned and is not practical to what industry really requires (see Section 5.3.3.1.3).

	Make-up			
Class C	Day make-up	Evening make-up		
Class B	Photographic make-up (black or white)	Stage makeup (close or distance)	Bridal make-up paper design & Bridal make-up (theme of natural or gorgeous)	Paper make-up design (corrective make-up)

Table 5-12: The ranges of SCL Skills test for Make-up (Skill Evaluation Centre of Workforce Development Agency 2014)

Skin care

Regarding the skin care section, there are only a couple of additional applications in Class B compared to Class C. The additional application is exfoliation, hand care, waxing and a written test while the steamer was on.

	Skin care						
Class C	Preparation & Fill out client record card		Facial Massage	Steaming the face	Facial mask		Tidy up & pack away
Class B	Preparation & Fill out client record card	Facial Cleanse & Exfoliate	Facial Massage	Steaming the face & written test	Facial mask & Hand care	Waxing	Tidy up & pack away

Table 5-13: The ranges of SCL Skills test for Skin care (Skill Evaluation Centre of Workforce Development Agency 2014)

The client record card for Class C is very brief: apart from the client's contact details, skin type, condition and skin care are recorded. For Class B, apart from the information required for Class C, the skin care procedure and home care advice needs to be written down. Yet again, there is no consultation and skin analysis required to be performed: every candidate just memorises the answer and writes down the information of skin type, condition and care advice. Moreover, there is no communication between candidate and client in the practical test, which is very unnatural compared to the real world practice. The examiners would not question the candidates if their judgement was incorrect from the observation of previous auto-ethnographic experience as an invigilator of SC in Taiwan.

Another criticism is that for the step of steaming the face, in Class C, the candidate only needs to pretend the operation and read out the procedure. In Class B, although steaming the face is a real practice, candidates were focusing on another written test with very little attention to the client, from observation of previous auto-ethnographic experience.

Also, taking waxing as another example, although the procedure states the four steps of waxing are pre-wax, applying wax, waxing and after-wax, the treatment of waxing is not stated in the client record card according to its manual book, which should have been filled out at the beginning of the skill test and recorded when the treatment completed. In addition, candidates are only requested to perform one strip of waxing with a precise area of 5cmx10cm on the outside of the model's left or right lower leg. In the assessment criteria, there is no care advice to check candidate's underpinning knowledge. Also, it is questionable whether one strip can test the candidate's capability of performing a waxing treatment.

In addition, the level of skills is another concern. Comparing to the UK, waxing is one of the units in Level 2, which is equivalent to senior vocational high school year 2 in Taiwan and it was listed on one of the tests of Class B. A lot of

HVET implement the training course for skill test Class B Beautify into their curriculum to attract the learners and it has been classified as one of the conditions for the completion of the programme.

Disinfection and hygienic test

This section for Class C and B is exactly the same, containing three sub-sections:

1) Identification of health and safety of cosmetics,
2) Identification of disinfectant and disinfection methods, operations
3) Hand washing and hand disinfection operation.

Superficially, hygiene seems embedded into the skill test: however, the test is again just a fake performance. Candidates only need to memorise the formulas of measuring the disinfectants and if they read out the process of disinfecting the selected tools correctly they would easily have a pass.

Although some industrial experts (such as IE01, IE02, IE10, IE11 and IE12) perceive NOL as an entrance level to measure practitioner's understanding of the industry, it does not indicate that they are competent to perform beauty treatments. Also, some industry interviewees (such as IE04and IE09) consider candidates who possess NOL are more difficult to be malleable. Thus, pre-job training has become essential to both employers and practitioners. Though, the majority of industrial experts interviewed do not really require a HVET beauty qualification and NOL.

The government has promoted the essentiality of obtaining NOL with a minimum of Class C in order to work in the beauty industry (Yeh 2010). Therefore, the government has required a high success rate for the skills test in the vocational education route. The training for passing the skills test has been embraced into curriculum design of beauty programmes and become the training focus. For working as an instructor/trainer within organisations/institutions, Class B with a higher level of qualification is a

desirable criterion (Yeh 2010:58). Focusing on rigid mechanical skill training to achieve a high successful rate of the skill test has become one of the reasons leading to the distortion of the VET system in Taiwan today.

Chen (2004), Yeh & Chen (2006) and Wu (2008) have all proposed recommendations for a reformation of OLS. Some of the recommendations are useful: for instance, legalise the OLS and ensure that NOL is implemented in industry; divide the NOL in beauty into different specialised licenses; the examiners of SC should be trained and verified; and establish a SOP for evaluating the examiners of SC. Also, Zheng (2011) recommends that the Taiwan government should enforce the policy of implementation of the OLS thoroughly to protect the customers and ensure service quality.

Some of these recommendations would only tackle the problem on the surface, not at the root as they have mainly focused on the details of the test content: for example, flagging the level of difficulty in the theory test or adding multiple-choice test and an oral examination or promoting registering, testing and issuing the certificate on the same day to speed up the process and so forth. From these recommendations mentioned above, it can be seen that not only has the examiners' standard been questioned, but also the quality of the exam. The skill test turns out to be quantity over quality with very little credibility in industry at all (Chen 2002; Yeh and Chen 2006).

The similar structure between both levels of skill tests in Taiwan is because the process is perceived as a performance rather than a service: therefore, the researcher questions whether it really measures the candidate's competence. Professional attitude and hygienic practice are performed in a very unnatural manner as candidates are not familiar with them and they are not commonly performed in a real working environment. Therefore, candidates do not have a clear understanding of how to implement hygienic practice into the process. Also, no contra-indication is checked and no strategy for contra-actions are demonstrated, as they should be as part of any health and safety practice. The

limited progression can be seen from the levels of test: the content of the test lacks depth and professional level. Overall, the focus of the skill tests is shallow and distorted: more importantly, it is just a formal performance rather than a real test of competence.

5.3.2 Analysis of observations at workplace

The purpose of undertaking observations is to identify the problems of the beauty industry in Taiwan particularly regarding to service procedure and beauty professionals' performance. The observation (see Section 4.3.3) has focused on service procedure as it would involve the preparation, consultation, treatment and after treatment. The observation used the criteria established in the UK as a reference to observe Taiwan's industry service process as it would be easier to compare the difference to the UK and identify what is missing.

Four observations at the workplace were undertaken in Taiwan. They include a beauty counter in a retail shop (Obs1), salon chain (Obs2), home-based service (Obs3) and a Spa (Obs4). These four were selected because they are the main types of beauty service in Taiwan, especially the type of Obs1. The strategy of Obs1 used was that the cosmetic companies provide a free of charge service using their brand of cosmetic products bought by the clients from the beauty counter in a retail shop or department store. The others were selling treatment package(s) using the products that the salon offered. The clients were not necessarily aware of the brand and the products that were used. The detailed analysis can be seen in Appendix E.

5.3.3 Analysis of interviews in Taiwan

There are two stages of data collection in Taiwan. The first stage of data collection in Taiwan is to confirm the problems identified from previous auto-ethnographic experience in Taiwan and the existing literature. The second stage of interview was a further modification from the first stage and a model

testing. Based on the feedback from the first stage of interviews, the proposed model was developed and tested at the second stage of interviews.

It is important to note that the Service model, based on UK's NOS and auto-ethnographic experience (see Section 5.2.2 and 5.2.1.2), initially was tested on a four interviewees, in the UK (UKEE-D and UKEE-G) and Taiwan (IE05 and EE06). The interviewees have shown the great interest in the Service model. In order to prevent the possibility of plagiarism, the testing was discontinued and it was suggested to present the Service model as a conceptual model.

5.3.3.1 The first stage of semi-structured interviews

The first stage of data collection in Taiwan focused on six parts which are: Characteristics of interviewees, industry overview of beauty sector, communication between education and industry, professional competence development, a comparison of FE and HVET graduates' performance, a ranking of competence required for FE and HVET beauty graduates and a comparison of HVET beauty graduates' from education and industry experts' perspectives. The expected competence from education and required competence from industry was compared.

5.3.3.1.1 Industry overview of beauty sector in Taiwan

The opening question was proposed to understand the overview of beauty sector regarding what the value was focusing on from the experts of industry and education. The question would reflect the value and attitude held toward their profession/ business by the experts. Also, the difference between both sectors could be found.

Eight industrial experts and eight educational experts were requested to rank and rate the components of the value for the beauty profession/business based on seven criteria: the quality of service and attitude, human resources (including promotion and welfare), work ethics, profit, ability to communicate and create beauty, professional competence, product quality, reputation and

marketing. The ranking is from 1 to 7 and the interviewees had to rank 7 criteria. 1 is the highest in ranking and 7 is the least value to consider, therefore any criteria ranked with number 1 will obtain a score of 7 while those ranked 7 only get a score of 1 and so on (see Table 5-14 and Table 5-15). After that, the experts would be requested to rate the importance, 1 to 3, for each criterion (Score 3 means the most important). The reason for given a ranking and rating is because through the pilot studies, the interviewees responded that it was very difficult to rank criteria in order because some of them are equally important.

Table 5-14/Table 5-15 and Figure 5-6/Figure 5-7 shows that the experts in both sectors of industry and education have a similar value in the criteria of work ethic, the quality of service and attitude. While IEs believe that product quality, reputation and marketing could be most significant for a successful beauty business, EEs argued that professional competence would be more important for driving the business forward. For both groups of experts, the least important criteria for the beauty business is profit. They responded confidently that profit should be generated as long as the others are achieved. (see Table 5-14 and Table 5-15)

Components \ Ranking and rating	Ranking (Score) Rank 1=7 scores Rank 7=1 score									Rating Rate 3=the most important Rate 1= the least important								
	IE 01	IE 02	IE 03	IE 04	IE 05	IE 06	IE 07	IE 08	Sum	IE 01	IE 02	IE 03	IE 04	IE 05	IE 06	IE 07	IE 08	Sum
The quality of service and attitude	6	6	5	7	4	6	7	4	45	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	23
Human resource, promotion and welfare	1	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	16	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	17
Work ethics	7	5	7	4	7	7	6	5	**48**	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	**24**
Profit	3	1	1	1	1	3	3	6	19	3	1	2	1	2	3	2	3	17
Convey and create beauty	2	2	3	5	3	4	4	1	24	3	2	3	3	2	1	2	1	17
Professional competence	4	7	6	3	5	4	4	3	36	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	23
Product quality, reputation and marketing	5	4	4	5	6	5	5	7	41	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	**24**

Table 5-14: The value of the beauty business ranked and rated by IEs

Components \ Ranking and rating	Ranking (Score) Rank 1=7 scores Rank 7=1 score									Rating Rate 3=the most important Rate 1= the least important								
	EE 01	EE 02	EE 03	EE 04	EE 05	EE 06	EE 07	EE 08	Sum	EE 01	EE 02	EE 03	EE 04	EE 05	EE 06	EE 07	EE 08	Sum
The quality of service and attitude	7	7	7	6	3	5	6	4	45	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	22
Human resource, promotion and welfare	5	3	3	1	2	2	3	2	21	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	18
Work ethics	4	6	5	7	4	7	7	7	47	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	23
Profit	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	10	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	16
Convey and create beauty	2	4	1	3	6	3	2	3	24	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	2	20
Professional competence	6	5	6	5	7	6	5	5	45	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	24
Product quality, reputation and marketing	3	2	4	4	5	4	4	6	32	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	21

Table 5-15: The value of the beauty business ranked and rated by EEs

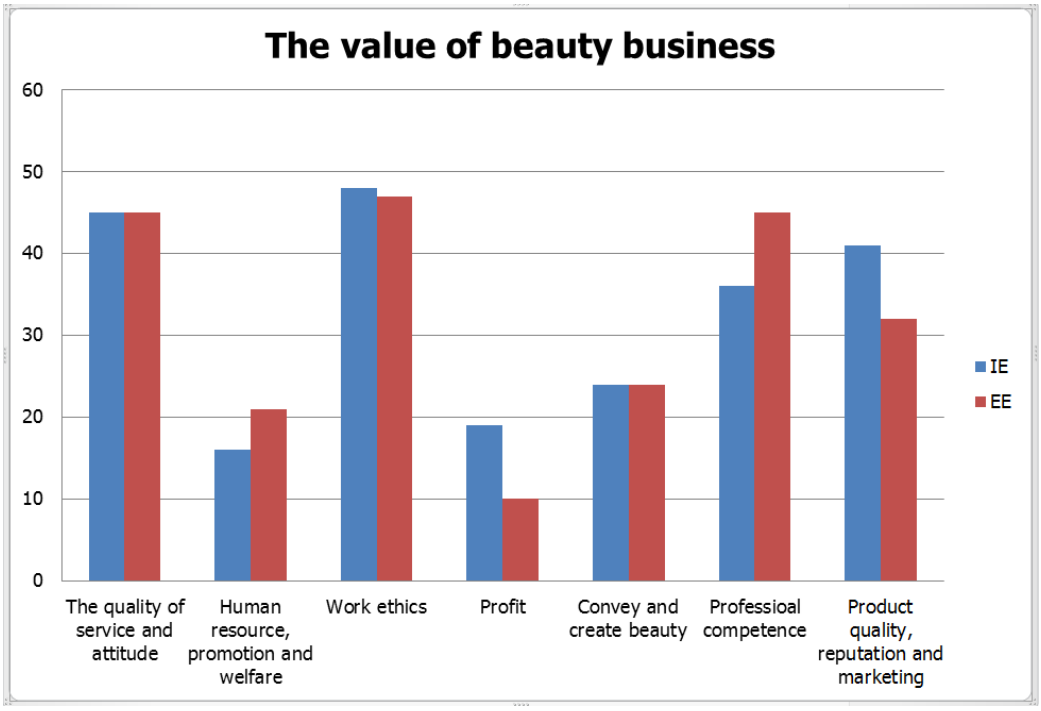


Figure 5-6: The comparison of the ranking in the value of the beauty business

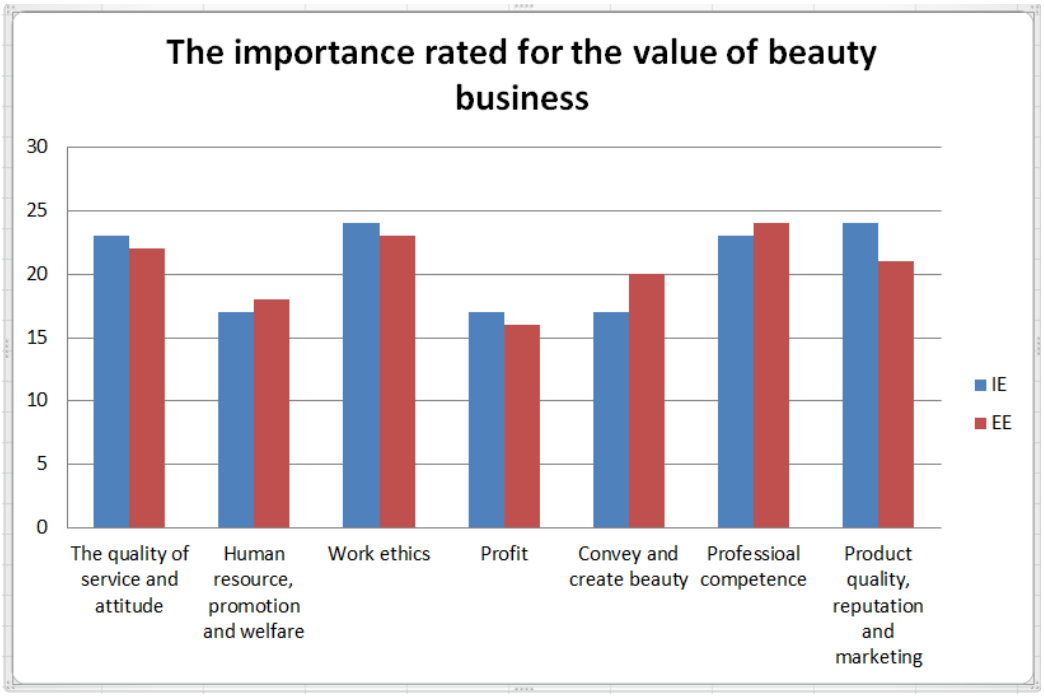


Figure 5-7: The importance rated for the value of the beauty business

Table 5-14/Table 5-15 shows that 'Work ethics' was ranked the highest overall for the beauty sector by IEs and EEs, with half the IEs and half the EEs rank and rate 'work ethics' as the most important component in the beauty business. Remarkably, work ethics was valued highly on both questions by both educational and industrial sectors. This consensus appears rather ironic as the beauty practice in Taiwan has been controversial due to the lack of regulations and work ethics. From both figures, it proves that both sectors, in a sense, all recognise its importance above all: however, how to actually implement it into their profession appears rather important. This phenomenon may reflect a culture of formalism in Taiwan.

5.3.3.1.2 Communication between education and industry

The purpose of setting this question is to confirm by what method exactly education and industry communicated from the perspectives of educational and industrial experts in Taiwan. It would be interesting to find out how the educational sector evaluated the work placement scheme in their institute. Meanwhile, it is also necessary to ascertain the viewpoint from the industrial

sector on how useful for developing learners' competence the work placement scheme that universities' offer is, in case that is just wishful thinking from one side.

This question includes three sub-questions. First of all, the educational experts were requested to rate the communication between education and industry. One is ineffective communication and ten is effective communication. Next to this is to evaluate the effect of communication between the two sectors. The last sub-question is to suggest a strategy of improving/enhancing the communication.

The average score of the communication or interaction between education and industry from EEs' average is 6.19 (see Table 5-16). The higher score was given by EEs: it can be seen that more than half of the EEs have confidence in their institutions' performance. The initial score they gave was higher as they believed that they have had sufficient and successful communication with industry. When they realised that it was an overall score for the educational sector in terms of the outcome of communication with industry, the score dropped slightly.

Educational Experts	EE1	EE2	EE3	EE4	EE5	EE6	EE7	EE8	Average
The score given for the current state of communication between education and industry	7.5	7	5	7	6	4	5	8	6.19

Table 5-16: The score for current state of communication between education and industry by Educational Experts

Industrial Experts	IE1	IE2	IE3	IE4	IE5	IE6	IE7	IE8	Average
The score given for the current state of communication between education and industry	4	5	3	5	6	5	3	2	4.13

Table 5-17: The score for current state of communication between education and industry by Industrial Experts

In contrast, the IEs' average score is 4.13 (see Table 5-17). Therefore, it is clearly shown that the majority of IEs disagree with the EEs. Both sectors hold a different perception of the outcome of communication.

When further questioned regarding their approach of communicating and interacting with industry to bridge the gap between education and industry, the education experts considered that making phone calls, site visiting or inviting industrial experts to university to have a lesson or talk to learners is effective communication. For instance,

> *"We tend to invite industrial experts to come here and talk to students…Oh, yes, also we organised an annual exhibition, which invites as many as possible industrial companies to come. Some of the companies are very supportive as they attend almost every year."* (EE01)
>
> *"…yes, we sometimes invited industrial experts to have a talk or took students to visit the industry."* (EE12)
>
> *"I use my networking, so I called them and asked them if there are any opportunities for our learners to have work placement there."* (EE14)

The reasons for a lower score stated by industrial experts are: lecturers and learners lack field experience; the educational sector responds to industrial needs far too slowly; they focus too much on theoretical input and lack practicality.

> *"…education sector cannot respond to industrial needs promptly enough."* (IE02)
>
> *"….what they learned at school is too theoretical, even in the practical sessions; they only practised with their classmates. They had no opportunity to make contact with real customers; thus, what they can experience is really limited in such a learning environment."* (IE10)

According to some EEs' feedback, they found that some people from industry had a superior attitude towards them. Some of them, who had industrial background, used their contacts instead. Attitude is a silent language. According to IE01's response, it can be seen they do not really communicate

because of the fear of unknown situation, so both sectors spoke their own language without even trying.

> *"They [HE lecturers] act as high above, how can we communicate?"* (IE01)

Regarding the issue of industrial experts' attitude, a possible explanation is, according to the responses from both sectors that working with the educational sector required a lot of unnecessary and over-elaborate formalities.

> *"It [work placement] is too presentational…. It is just about writing a report regardless."* (EE10)

> *"…to collaborate with education sector is too much hassle as it takes too much time to process everything."* (IE08)

Barron (2008:5) highlighted that educators are often criticised for focusing too much on theoretical input, so that insufficiencies in certain practical skills were identified. It may not be entirely true, as in vocational education and training practical skill is still the centre of discipline. It may be more appropriate to consider if the practical skills the educators deliver has met the same skills requirements that the industrial experts really recognised.

> *"…there is a huge difference comparing school to the workplace, the value of that experience cannot be formed at school. It is really difficult to achieve…ah…the capacity that the industry requires. Hmm, how to say…they will possess the basis of ability after the completion of the course, but there is no way to form that kind of experience in school. So they often appear maladaptive when they were placed in the industry…corporate culture acculturation in particular...."* (EE12)

These direct quotes from interviewees have fully illustrated the fundamental problem in the beauty sector. Although EE07 noted that

> *"The problem is what we taught students is how we were taught. It's a systematic problem."* (EE07)

> *"The ineffective communication is partly because there is 'no communication'; partly because they 'do not understand' how to communicate and partly the communication was built on the basis of 'not understanding the industry."* (EE10)

"*…they communicated, but not successfully."* (IE12)

Perhaps, it actually reflects that education and industry sector just talk their own language and there is no common ground between them.

Also, some experts pointed out that the both sectors have different expectations. The educational sector has very little understanding of industry, which might mislead learners.

> *"Hmm…I have only ever hired two HE beauty graduates. One has left on the first day and the second one also left the job on the second day…I think that they have held the wrong idea....different expectations."* (IE12)

If what learners are taught is different to what industry actually requires, it shows that both education and industry either have very limited communication or they could not come to an agreement on what learners should learn and what practitioners should do. Regarding the feedback of educational sector responding to industrial needs too slowly, it is explained that academia has difficulty keeping up with the trends as preparing qualified lecturers is a long-term strategy and time consuming, especially when beauty is classified as a part of fashion. However, it needs a very close working relationship with industry and requires vision in order to detect future trends.

5.3.3.1.3 Professional competence development

This inquiry was intended to find out the strategies that the educational and industrial sectors adopted to develop learners' and professionals' competence outside of formal education qualifications. The strategies of promoting learners' competence are varied, but the approaches the EEs suggested tend to fall on promoting national and international skill certifications or attending skill competitions apart from work placement: whereas, all the IEs suggested was on-the-job training. The contradiction is that the majority of industrial experts do not agree that NOL is creditable, but some of them did use NOL to measure their basic industrial knowledge and skills. Also, some educational experts

despise OLS, but they are to some extent facilitating it. NOL has become the easiest way of obtaining a beauty qualification[31] and entering this industry, which has devalued seven years of beauty education from FE to HVET. Also, the strengths and weaknesses of the strategies they used were analysed by the interviewees.

There are various tactics of gaining real world experience. The current strategy of bridging a gap between education and industry and of preparing HVET level of learners' competence for future employment that the educational sector commonly used is the work placement scheme. The other strategies employed include skill certifications such as for NOL (see Section 5.3.1.3) or other international skill certifications, the government's funded programme, 'The Last Mile' (see Section 5.3.1.2) and skill competitions.

Work placement scheme

This scheme has recently been actively promoted by the Taiwanese government for a decade, in order to close the gap between education and industry. According to the findings, it is apparent that, in Taiwan, work placement is the most common method used in the HVET sector. Work placement is usually compulsory and credited, which contains 2 to 4 credits, as the part of programme in the degree course. Every university has its own strategy for implementing the scheme internally and/or externally and requires different evidence for the module. Some universities even allowed their learners to complete the hours in their own time before graduation.

Normally, it was arranged during the summer holiday, for one to two months, at the end of year three of the degree course, either arranged by an allocated agency within the university or the department. The majority of educational

[31] Obtain Class B of NOL could be verified as equivalent to FE certificate (Chen 2010:15).

experts indicated that the time for the work placement should be extended to half of a year as they found that the work placement is too short to gain valuable experience. One of the universities was even planning to extend it to a year, for year four. It is getting more common that the department arranges the work placement opportunities for their learners because their teaching staff would have a better industrial knowledge than the university agency.[32]

During a period of work placement, lecturers will visit their learners at the allocated workplace and report back to institutions. It was found that the majority of universities are providing support for learners and coordination with the workplaces. The support includes communication with employers on the behalf of learners and one-to-one contact to check whether learners adjust to the workplace well, according to the interviewees and the evidence of work placement manual issued by the Department of Styling and Cosmetology of Tainan University of Technology in Taiwan (Department of Styling and Cosmetology 2016). The finding from interviews is that there is no constructive structure to build learners' competence through this scheme because there is no target set and no assessment takes place to ensure that the learning is effective.

According to the interviewees, there is no assessment that needs to be carried out at workplaces, but the employers or industrial supervisors will give a score in terms of learners' performance at workplace with an additional report to record their experience of work placement. However, the educational institutions could not determinate what learners should learn or oversee learners' performance at the workplace. In other words, learners did not know what learning outcome they will gain at the end of the scheme. According to

[32] In Taiwan, each vocational education sector normally has a department in the institution that plays a role as an agency or co-ordinator in charge of work placements and collaboration with industry.

interviewees, lecturers need to write a weekly report to record the progress of the scheme and the employer will give a score for their performance at the end of the scheme. The lecturers' part has not been mentioned much even though some of them claimed that they need to mark the report. The issue is that learners graduate once the report is submitted. In other words, there is no much time for lecturers to give learners feedback.

Practitioners recalled their memories regarding their work placement experiences: the feedback was generally negative. One of the practitioners said that "most of the time, I was doing the cleaning job because I did not know what I could do at the time." Others were nodding to agree. They felt that was a wasting of the time because they were lost and did not know what to do.

> *"I chose one of the hair salons because there was not much choice for us to choose. I was with a couple of classmates. The first week, it was very awkward because we did not know what to do, so we were told to greet clients and serve the tea/coffee. The rest of time, we were helping out cleaning the salon such as sweeping the floor, collecting and folding towels, washing rollers and so on. We sometimes ran some errands for others. After a week or so, we requested that if they could teach us something simple to start with. We were taught how to shampoo and practised shampooing on colleagues' hair first. Although we had learned in the class, it was still a real challenge for us to grasp the technique due to the difference in facilities and method in educational and industrial settings. After a couple of days practising, we were allowed to work on clients although we were still far away from being competent. If you asked me whether I felt competent at the end of the placement, the answer would be definitely a 'NO'."* (EE07)

> *"We were told that we were in the work placement for learning 'management' in a hair salon. I have learned literally nothing apart from observing the services, greeting the customers, delivered tea and coffee to customers and cleaning the salon and that's all I did."* (IE06)

The majority of the experts who responded to the question regarding the advantage of work placement scheme have a similar answer, that it is to allow learners to be close to the workplace, to bridge a seamless employment and to

have a better understanding of the market for preparing their employment. The disadvantage could be summarised in three aspects: it is too short to allow them to familiarise and fuse into the environment, a risk of losing learners due to maladjustment; and the usual timing of the end of the final year is too late to start the work placement. The latter is the main concern for educational lecturers.

> "*The problem is that the work placement is arranged too late for learners…Learners were really at a loss for their future. The reason of a loss is that the university's education is too rigid and it caused harm to the year one and year two learners because many universities used the first two years training [Skills Certification for National Occupational License] Class C and B!"* (EE10)

> *"The disadvantage is that learners could possibly drop out the course if they found that they could not accommodate to the working environment or style."* (EE12)

> "*It is a dilemma for us. On one hand, we would like them [learners] to start work placement as early as possible: on the other hand, we were worried that we might lose learners if they have encountered some bad experiences…"* (EE13)

Other disadvantages raised by some industrial experts such as IE10 were

> "*It is not that we do not like interns. We need to consider that our clients will approach the interns…if they ae not ready, it might cause an impact on our brand image.*"

She also highlights an issue of learners' attitude towards work placement:

> *"In addition, there were some incidents occurred during this collaboration. For example, they are young; you know…so not being punctual or leaving early seems very common. Sometimes, they called in sick in such short notice...of course, it is our responsibility to report to the University, but the interns would not be happy and even confront with us. After that, the atmosphere…the feeling between us and interns has changed."*(IE10)

Educational experts such as EE14 also raised the concern of learners' attitude at work placement. From the interviews, the majority of educational experts declared that they have offered a great number of work placement

opportunities for learners, but some learners' performance is a let-down. For instance,

> *"I think the biggest problem is in the students themselves. For example, we helped to arrange the workplace for learners to have a work placement, but they do not cherish the opportunity."* (EE14)

Under questioning, it was found that there is a high homogeneity of work placement opportunities. For examples, the majority of work placement opportunities are mainly working at the beauty counter as beauticians according to EE01, EE12, EE13 and EE14. For example, some learners are interested in developing their career in make-up artistry, but the majority of opportunity provided for work placements are at the beauty counter of department stores, beauty salon or hair salons. Therefore, it may be not about the number of work placement opportunities that institutions could offer, but the quality of work placement experience learners could obtain. Would this mismatch demotivate learners' willingness of carrying out a work placement, which may lead to attitude issues?

The Last Mile programme

The Last Mile programme is a 12-hour a week for 10 months programme outside of normal learning hours (see Section 5.3.1.2). The numbers of learners are restricted: they were selected according to their learning performance in terms of attendance, test result and so forth (EE01). The programme is normally comprised of different subjects to complement the curriculum and/or to prepare for employment. Some institutions affirmed the popularity of the programme and efficiency of the outcome. This scheme is considered to be the better strategy to let learners to gain some latest industrial techniques. The programme was divided into small topics delivered by different industrial experts.

The strength of the programme is that it was an extra training to prepare for employment delivered by industrial trainers outside of the university. It was

found that not only can this kind of short course keep the learners interested, but also it would have fewer problems if the industrial trainers could teach. One of the educational experts commented that:

> "*This would be better because, in the past, I tended to invite the industrial experts to teach for a whole term, if he/she was not a good teacher, the whole term would be ruined…. The positive standpoint of this programme is that I can invite different teachers and each teacher may teach two to three weeks. Yes, if he/she taught well, then it could leave students a very good impression. If not, it does not matter, once the session is finished, and there will be another one.*" (EE01)

Even though some educational experts argued that the selection of industrial experts they invited to teach all have met the criteria stated in the specification (see footnote 25 in Section 5.3.1.2), it still reflects that either there is no explicit benchmark to measure the standard and quality of industrial trainer or the definition has too much room for interpretation. Also, although the majority of interviewees from the education sector insisted that they could not find the weakness of this strategy, a drawback of this strategy would be that it is only beneficial for some learners because of the restriction in the numbers of the student places.

Skill certifications

Skill certifications here refer to not only the SC for NOL, but also the training for other international skill certifications such as City & Guilds International Vocational Qualification (IVQ) Level 2 Beauty Therapy, Federation of Holistic Therapists (FHT) Aromatherapy and so forth. These skill certifications were widely promoted as part of the criteria for BA qualification in Taiwan, although it is not compulsory. The strength of the strategy is to encourage learners to obtain extra certificates alongside the BA qualification.

There was an unexpected incident during the interview with IE07, who was the founder of a beauty private school in Taiwan. She raised an inquiry whether FHT was a recognised beauty organisation of the UK. She explained that she

was persuaded to obtain its certificate without physically attending the training and test (merely with a check of professional qualifications and experience), so she was worried if she was deceived after paying the fees.

The shortcoming is that every skill certification has its own features and criteria to meet, so the variety of standards and styles would be difficult for learners to follow. One of the interviewees pointed out that:

> *"These skill certificates we just mentioned…you know…it costs, but as long as you follow the specification the test centre gave you…you will definitely pass. In fact, everybody can buy one as long as you have money."* (EE14)

The contradiction is that Taiwan's Occupational License System was considered as an indicator of competence, but then she addressed its shortcomings:

> *"The examination standards are dated…the make-up is that kind of style in 70s and 80s..never changed."* She carried on saying that *"It's all fake, especially Class C… very bad... Students just memorised the formulas and doesn't really put it into a real practice... For instance, the consultation card…students just memorised all the information and filled it out in the test. It should be random to test students' ability. So this is very poor."* (EE14)

> "*Let's take an example, [National Occupational] License, s/he could get a pass as long as s/he met the benchmark, but the problem is that it is not enough for work in the real world. For example, let's say that attitude, there is no way to assess attitude in such short time of a test."* (EE13)

In this case, apart from the detail discussed for OLS (see Section 5.3.1.3), universities in Taiwan have a tendency of promoting international certificates to show off their internationalisation even though they have very little knowledge of it. For example, IVQ Level 2 is a UK qualification equivalent to Vocational High School in Taiwan, but is promoted in HVET. Also, in Taiwan, we do not have a proper structure of assessment system as UK has, yet again: so this qualification was distorted in order to fit into Taiwan and has become worse, not better. For example, this IVQ is a type of NVQ, but their assessments were

carried out privately without being witnessed by the assessor or being assessed on paying clients – portfolio assessment only was used.

In the beauty industry, they employ on-the-job training regularly as a strategy of developing professional competence. One-the-job training tends to be used to update product/equipment/technical knowledge and/or skills. Industrial experts also analysed the advantage and disadvantage of the strategies they used for their organisation. They found that sometimes the sessions for on-the-job training were led by their colleagues and/or the manager, so it was difficult to boost the excitement.

All of the industrial experts could not suggest any better strategy than on-the job training and CPD, apart from one interviewee. This interviewee (IE10) suggested that it would be beneficial to the professionals if they are permitted to have a secondment to other industries to exchange their experience and knowledge with another industry. For example, she would like to have a work placement at any marketing company and join a project from beginning to finish, observing the process. She projected that this experience could bring her a different view back to her profession. She also addressed that the difficulty of this idea depended on whether the business owner would invest in their employees to have time off their work for a period of time.

Skill competition

Skill competition includes national and international competitions. This has been controversial. Only a few interviewees from the education sector mentioned the skill competition and they have shown a contrasting opinion. This approach is only beneficial for a few people, but also the effect is inconclusive.

> "*I think that it [skill competition] is a healthy competition…Although it is only a few candidates could join and win the competition, the winner would become an example for others…. However, we do not participate in any regional competition in Asia as it is vicious and it would not be good for student to see the dark side of this industry. We*

only attended the international competition as they play open and fair…. Yeah, this is a bad practice in Taiwan that really needs to improve." (EE14)

"*Skill competition has really gone wrong…What's wrong? Take the National Cup Champion as example, if I have 20 candidates join the competition, the organiser will give me the championship because they have to meet the teacher's expectations! If I have a champion in my group, my evaluation score will be high!"* (EE10)

"I will not encourage my students to participate in the skill competition as it is not a fair competition. Most of them are not playing fair because the winner has been decided already." (EE01)

5.3.3.1.4 A comparison on the performance and requirements of competence for FE and HVET graduates from Industrial Experts (IEs)

The ranking of competences expected and required obtained from the first stage of interview is compared in this and next section. Prior to identifying the requirements for FE and HVET graduates from the IEs' perspective, it is important to see if there is any difference between FE and HVET beauty graduates' performance. From the IEs' perspectives, however, Table 5-18 shows that there is not much difference between FE or HVET graduates' performance. Due to the little difference in performance, some IEs even declared that they do not have any intention to recruit HVET beauty graduates. They have not much choice because the majority of the applicants were HVET graduates.

	FE beauty graduates	HVET beauty graduates
IE1	Fair	Fair
IE2	Fair	Fair
IE3	Strongly dissatisfied	Dissatisfied
IE4	Fair	Fair
IE5	Fair	Fair
IE6	Satisfied	Fair
IE7	Fair	Fair
IE8	Strongly dissatisfied	Strongly dissatisfied

Table 5-18: The comparison of performance between FE and HVET beauty graduates

The comparative analysis of competences required for FE and HVET beauty graduates is given in Appendix F-1. The IEs require more competence from HVET graduates, a broader knowledge, especially involving research and development of professional expertise and greater knowledge of health and safety and First Aid. Being able to sell the products/treatment is the most important criteria for both FE and HVET graduates, but interactive/interpersonal, collecting and analysing data/information, professional development/life-long learning and team working are as important as selling skill for HVET beauty graduates. IEs require HE graduates to be strong on the particular attributes of being self-directed and having initiative. The most important component 'work ethics' and 'positive attitude to work' is considered as important for both FE and HVET graduates, while the least important component 'decisiveness' are scored for both FE and HVET graduates.

A comparison of the knowledge, skills and attributes components required for the assessment of competence in HVET beauty graduates by Education and

Industry Experts is given in Appendix F-2 and G-2. It shows that the knowledge requirements are similar from EEs and IEs, with the small difference that 'breadth of knowledge' was placed as high as 'depth of knowledge' and 'application of knowledge to practical situations' are by EEs, but the IEs considered 'breadth of knowledge' more important. A greater difference in priorities was shown for skills, although the variation in weighting was small: the IEs scored the skill of selling products/treatments highest, whereas, the most important identified by EEs were technical skills, consultation and problem-solving /analytical skills. For attributes, 'positive attitude to work' and 'work ethics' were scored the highest and 'decisiveness' the lowest by both groups of experts.

5.3.3.1.5 Future vision of the beauty sector

The last question of the interview was a 5-year future vision of the beauty industry. The finding from this question suggests that the majority of experts were deficient in terms of predicating a future vision of the beauty industry. Some of them provided a vision, medical cosmetology, which is happening now. Only very few of interviewees and Zeng (n.d.) in a seminar for the department of Cosmetic Applications in Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health proposed a vision that a merged business model of body, mind and spirit in the near future of the beauty business will be considered as the mainstream of beauty business. Apart from this, no more specific vision was suggested.

5.3.3.2 The second stage of semi-structured interviews

The second stage of data collection in Taiwan focused on identifying the core competence for beauty professionals, ranking of competence and model testing. According to competence theory (see Section 3.2.1), core competence is important to link both theory and practice at the scale of individual level to the competitive advantage. By identifying beauty professionals' core competence, not only would these identified core competences be a reference for the beauty practitioners, but also their drive for competitive advantage might be reflected.

In addition, it is important to note that the ranking of competence was not much distinguished at the first stage of interviews due to the scale used: thus, at the second stage the scale was enlarged from 1-3 to 1-7. Meanwhile, some components were re-organised according to the feedback from the first stage of interview.

At the second stage of interview, the proposed models from document analysis and the findings of the first stage of interview were tested. The relevant data relating to model testing will be presented in Chapter 7 Outcome: Model Development.

The core competences for beauty professionals identified by the IEs and EEs (in an open-ended question) were 'passion', 'professional knowledge' and 'professional skills'. The knowledge, skills and attributes required for competences expected and required from HVET graduates by EEs and IEs were compared. The analysis demonstrated that the educational experts emphasise the importance of knowledge more than industrial experts, including beauty related Acts, regulations and codes of practice, theoretical knowledge and industrial knowledge. However, the importance of 'application to knowledge to practical situation' was highlighted by industrial experts. Risk assessment was rated the least important by EEs and was also scored the second lowest by IEs.

Experts from both sectors preferred that the graduates possess a breadth of knowledge rather than a depth of knowledge.

For skills, the highest score from EEs was 'communication with colleagues and customers': whereas, IEs placed the importance on 'team-working', 'bi/Multi-lingual skill' was scored the lowest of all (see the numbers in green) from both sectors: when IEs were asked whether their employees need to have an ability of speaking in English or other international languages, the answers were 'no need' as long as they could recognise the terminology in English or other language of country of origin. Being able to plan and organise a treatment/service was one of the most important criteria for a beauty learner in the UK. Sometimes, they might have to carry out more than one treatment, so they need to have a good planning and organisation skill in order to design a rational sequence and provide a recommendation based on the factors they identify through consultation. In Taiwan, this part is missing in their learning; therefore, interviewees did not recognise this ability to possess.

Regarding attributes, both EEs and IEs held a similar viewpoint. The highest score falls on 'work ethics' and the lowest score is 'decisiveness' by experts from both education and industry, which is consistent with the ranking result from the first stage of interviews. However, EEs rated 'commitment' and 'adaptability' substantially higher than the industrial experts, while attributes such as caring and emotional management identified from the literatures were given a fairly high rating by both groups of experts, though creativity was rated lower. The lower rating of creativity may be because beauty therapy has been perceived as having limited application for creativity, except for make-up artistry and nail art. Detailed analysis is given in Appendix G-2.

5.4 Summary of Chapter 5

This chapter has described how the data was obtained and analysed to respond the methodology laid out in Chapter 4. Based on the original methodological

strategy of presenting a lens comparison (Walk 1998b), the results of data analysis from the UK and Taiwan will be presented separately.

The results of the UK document analysis were also confirmed through auto-ethnographic experience, that the UK's vocational education and training system has shown its consistency. The training system is strongly tied together by the NOS. Performance criteria of NOS were embedded into teaching, learning, assessing and practising. Standardisation is not only employed to align the differences, but also to ensure that the standards are maintained. Additionally, the quality of teaching, learning and assessment is assured through the QA process internally and externally. Learners' rights are well supported. Equally important, the UK has more complete tailored legislation and regulations for beauty practice. Also, professional bodies of the UK have established codes of conduct to regulate their members' practice.

Whereas, in Taiwan, due to the superficial understanding of the industry by the Taiwanese government, the impact of their policies and strategies appears limited. Additionally, Taiwan's approaches appear fragmented and lacking in vision. In Taiwan, the service structure and quality is varied. More importantly, legislation, regulations and codes of practice are not in place and implemented into education and practice on a daily basis, which is a concern to this day.

Through interviewing experts in both education and industry in Taiwan, it was found that both education and industry sectors were communicating in their own language with no common ground, which is one of the focal issues causing a gap between two sectors. The Taiwanese government tried to steer the education sector by using funding strategies, but lacks drive to evaluate the outcome.

Another finding from expert interviews is that the current strategies seem not ideal, but they do not have a better strategy to overthrow the approaches they are currently using. Also, the core competences for beauty professionals and

the competences for HVET graduates are, to some extent, identified. The findings suggest that the beauty sector is still a very practice-based industry. Professional knowledge and skills are still the most important criteria. The score within all attributes are very close, which suggests that all of them are relatively important, even though the importance of work ethics and honesty/integrity are highlighted.

On the whole, the key features of the nurturing system in the UK were identified and the research findings of required competence at the point of HVET graduation are presented and will be further discussed in Chapter 6 to map against the research objectives.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the analysis results in relation to the literature and the theories that have been reviewed. The present discussion not only draws out the practicality of the key findings, but also relates to the study's objectives and the research questions.

The discussion of the results begins with the issues identified from the primary data regarding Taiwan as presented by the existing literature. Section Three constitutes a reflection on the competence analysis. Section Four uses the document analysis and auto-ethnographic experience to identify the characteristics of the UK's approach to beauty training and in Section Five the practicality of applying key features of the UK's approach in Taiwan is discussed.

6.2 Reflection on the issues of Taiwan's nurturing approach

The issues regarding Taiwan's nurturing approach identified in the primary data echoes many of the problems reviewed by the literature. Most importantly, their currency is confirmed, as is the urgency for finding an effective strategy. More detailed analysis of the fundamental causes underlying these issues is discussed.

The fundamental issues causing the previously identified gap between education and industry can be discussed under five headings:

1. Government's role, its policies and strategies
2. Communication between education and industry
3. The functionality of VET
4. Industrial engagement and the quality of the service
5. Individuals' values, beliefs and attitudes

Some aspects of the findings overlap these headings, and might therefore affect other stakeholders than the section they are discussed within.

To succeed in making a seamless transition from education to industry, all relevant stakeholders should collaborate in formulating a sustained strategy (Davos-Klosters 2014). The UK's nurturing structure demonstrates how the relevant stakeholders work together as a team. These stakeholders include the government, professional bodies, education, industry and individuals. The relationship between the relevant stakeholders is shown in Figure 6-1. Individuals, directly affected as they are by government policies, the quality of the professional body, the effectiveness of education and the work environment, must align their relationships with each of the other stakeholders. Apart from the government, these are closely related to each other in the sector.

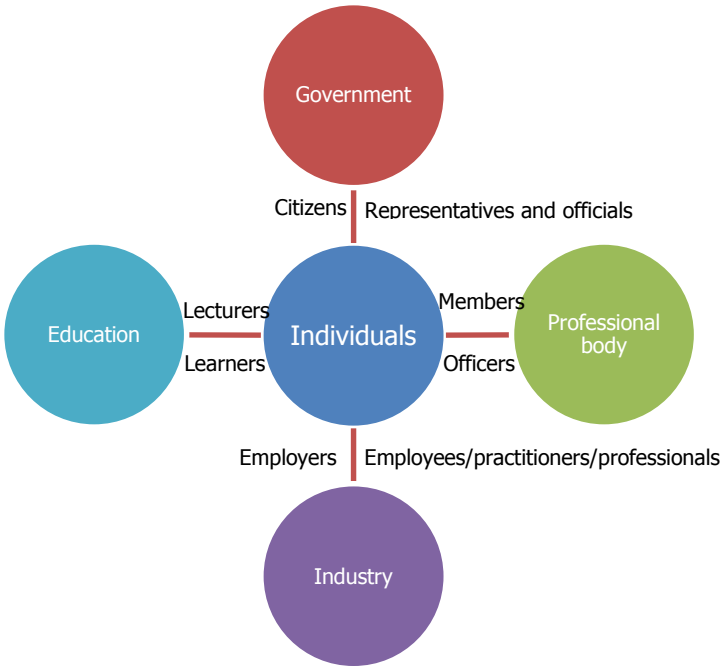


Figure 6-1: The relationship of the relevant stakeholders in the beauty sector
(developed by the researcher)

6.2.1 Issues relating to government's role, policies and strategies

The role of government, involving its policies and strategies, is highly significant, as any such policy could affect all stakeholders even though the correspondence between it and individuals is less direct. Porter (2000:20-21) states that government must work with organisations, institutions and industry to ensure that the business environment functions productively. The mayor of Taipei, Ko Wen-Je, maintains that the government's role is to ensure the correctness of the direction taken, not to perform functions itself (Taiwan Formosa TV News 2015). The government, in other words, should only monitor the direction of national development and guide it to the right path; it should act to facilitate the sector's development.

Although governmental policies and regulations give it the power to determine the level of industrial competitiveness (Porter 1980:28-29), Inzelt (2004:980) sees the role of government has having shifted from that of 'ruler and regulator' to 'facilitator'. These studies suggest that government should play a facilitative, not a managerial, role. The problem in Taiwan, however, is that its government has acted in the latter function without more than a very limited understanding of industries and professions. It tends to promote schemes and strategies without implementing policies. OLS is a good example (see Section 5.3.1.3). Not only has this reduced the industry's credibility: it has also led to a distortion of the training system.

There is no formal regulatory body with the authority to manage, inspect and enforce policy. Indeed, without the availability of policies as measures, it would not be surprising if outcomes were ineffective. The government has utilised funding strategies to drive the educational sector towards collaboration with the industry. The disproportionate resources allocated to private universities at the expense of their HVET counterparts means that beauty programmes only exist in the former (see Section 2.3.1) (Zhang 2012). The effect of this approach on industry has, however, been limited, as the application process for funding is

widely seen as overly bureaucratic and complex (see Chapter 5). This has resulted in an unequal collaboration between education and industry.

Although the Taiwanese government has addressed the issue regarding the gap between education and industry (Xu 2013; Hsieh 2013), its administrative unit is criticised as containing laypeople who lack understanding of the industry (Qiu 2013; Liu & Liu 2014). This view conforms to the interview findings from IE03, IE08, EE07 and EE10. Interviewees stated that, in order to bridge the gap, the Taiwanese government has promoted some collaborative projects (see Section 5.3.1.2) to deal with the issue as a short-term strategy. Document analysis reveals that government-funded projects are subject to very limited third-party review and evaluation, without which no further development or improvement can be made. It can therefore be seen that the Taiwanese government lacks a long-term strategy and vision. Recommendations to enable a more effective governmental response to these issues are made in Section 8.2.6.1.

6.2.2 Issues regarding communication and collaboration between education and industry

The present study finds ineffective communication to be a fundamental cause of the gap between education and industry. Communication is the basic form of interaction at any level of collaboration (Inzelt 2004). Effective communication should be based on clear good practice guidelines together with a high quality of management based on commitment and trust (Barnes et al. 2002). One unanticipated finding, however, was that the meaning of communication and interaction is misinterpreted. Educational experts consider telephone contacts, a large number of industrial contacts, visits to industrial sites and speaking invitations to industrial experts as manifestations of effective communication and interaction with industry. Such one-way communication would primarily affect collaborative projects between academia and industry.

Analysis results reveal that educational and industrial experts actually hold different viewpoints on the effectiveness of the communication between their spheres (see 5.3.3.1.2 - Table 5-16 and Table 5-17). The majority of the former seemed to "feel good about themselves" regarding their contribution to bridging the gap, although it was evident that all the industrial experts disagreed completely. Another explanation for such dysfunctional communication is that employers struggle to impart their position to the education sector. Smith and Kemmis (2010:223) mention a similar phenomenon in their project. Harvey (2001) shows that "mostly, employers and academics still `talk past each other' and there are endless debates about appropriate language."

Collaborative projects present a variety of opportunities for experts in both sectors to exchange views, but such opportunities have not been utilised as well as they could have been. Some educational experts admitted that industrial experts were merely invited to joint curriculum design meetings as their signatures were needed to fulfil funding requirements.

The primary research findings also suggest a slightly different outcome to those of Chen's (2011) and Cheng's (2010) studies regarding one particular collaborative project, Team Teaching. This scheme certainly benefits both lecturers and students. The problem identified by the interviews is that the former did not consider themselves as part of a teaching team, but rather saw the scheme as an opportunity of updating their knowledge of industrial trends. Some educational experts regarded the communication between the parties to be insufficient, causing a teaching disconnect between blocks of teaching. Collaborative projects such as The Last Mile, Team Teaching or Work Placement scheme were in fact designed as joint efforts to enhance each party's strengths and complement its weaknesses (Hu et al. 2013).

Both the literature and document analysis shows that the Taiwanese government has promoted various funding projects that attempt to close the gap between education and industry. As previously mentioned (see Section

6.2.1), these funding initiatives have become part of the education sector's income sources. Applying for funding projects has thus become a lecturer's responsibility alongside teaching. It is not difficult to imagine why the education sector is inclined to take a lead in its collaboration with industry. Levy (1990) interestingly argues that differing goals, together with the desirability of avoiding compromising themselves by association with industry's self-imposed 'reality', should dissuade educationalists from becoming directly involved in industrial projects.

The industry is clearly disengaged from the entire collaborative enterprise. Industrial experts could not discern a clear guideline, and their information regarding the collaboration was very limited. This implies that the industry merely responded to the education sector's initiative. Some of the industrial experts even showed no interest in the collaborative project. There was a lack of incentives by which to motivate industry, a lack of guidelines for learners and industry, and a lack of trust and commitment on both sides. None of the universal factors in effective communication identified by Barnes et al. (2002) were present.

These issues might be explained by the lack of a platform for both sectors to communicate and interact. Liu (2013) acknowledges the importance of establishing a platform for educational and industrial collaboration and suggests that the platform should be set by universities but led by the industry. This proposal would, however, restrict the scale to the institution, without benefiting other beauty practitioners and professionals. Recommendations for a nurturing strategy that would establish a common platform are discussed in Section 8.2.6.2. The development of models to enable more effective collaboration is discussed in Chapter 7.

6.2.3 Issues regarding the functionality of Vocational Education and Training (VET) in Taiwan

The recent literature suggests that the current problem in Taiwanese education is a gap between what graduates have learned at university and what is actually required of them at work (Yang et al. 2012; Wang 2013). It is difficult to synchronise theory and practice. This mismatch results in a lack of confidence on the part of graduates when they enter the job market, as they are criticised as incompetent (Huang 2003).

Levy (1990:44) holds that HE should aim to develop other key abilities such as the "processes of analysis, synthesis, interpretation, creation, evaluation, and judgement" rather than specialist knowledge and skills, which would eventually be acquired in industrial settings. HE should transcend any boundaries set by industries, organisations and associations. Levy's outlines the functionality and vision to be expected from the education sector.

VET's purpose is to increase graduates' competence to the level required to gain and maintain employment and to transfer between jobs. VET prepares its students for the demands of professional careers, improving their perspectives and their communication with industry (Yang et al. 2005; Levy 1990). It is thus a vital part of the nurturing structure, as it can either create, inform and increase learners' aspirations or crush their interest in the profession. The literature review and data analysis allows the issues to be observed by the following considerations.

Firstly, Taiwan's educational qualification structure is inflexible and lacks developmental levels. A comparison of Taiwan's and the UK's qualification structures shows that the former is overloaded by the numerous years of study required by each qualification (see Section 2.3.1.1). It is quite unlike the UK's qualification system, in which each level usually demands only one or two years of study. There is also a substantial difference in credit value: Taiwan's HE

beauty programme has one more year than its UK equivalent for a degree, but is of less credit value than its UK counterpart (see Sections 2.3.1.1 and 2.3.2.1).

The lack of developmental levels is another problem that was identified in the Taiwanese beauty curriculum. Taiwan's education system seems accessible, but the lack of standards and levels of development provoked complaints by interviewees of very limited differentiation between FE and HVET in beauty education. Even though FE has its curricular framework, the issue of over-teaching was highlighted because it left so little material for HVET to cover. Additionally, the mixture of backgrounds of HVET learners increases the difficulty of designing curricula and of progressing learners' knowledge and skills to higher levels.

Secondly, the comparison between the Taiwanese and the UK's beauty curricula (see Section 5.2.1.1/Appendix B and 5.3.1.1/Appendix C) suggest that the Taiwanese contains a broad range of subjects but a lack of depth. The value to the profession of that breadth is eliminated by its slight credit value. The preference for a broad knowledge base on the part of graduates, as shown by both educational and industrial interviewees' competence rankings at the first stage (see Appendix F-2), implies a wide experience of life (as opposed to taught general knowledge), as distinct from specialist knowledge. As is evident from the Taiwanese beauty curriculum, the modules are indeed broad, and some of them are tangential to the module's subject. Those digressions are classified as 'general education', with the purpose of strengthening learners' physical conditions and mind-sets and developing their personalities and attributes. Han (2003:270), however, declares such efforts to be in vain.

This does not mean that the curriculum can only be narrowly designed around the subject area. A skilful linking of these general subjects to specialist ones might overcome the problem. The point is not only to interest students but also to develop an awareness of the practical application of theory. For example, the auto-ethnographic experience in the UK revealed that functional skills

(mathematics, English and ICT), sustainability, equality and diversity are embedded in teaching and learning and are linked to specialist practice. The lecturers would relate the general subject to the specialist area whenever appropriate. The approach by which these modules are delivered with the aim of associating the subject with the profession in actual practice, thereby triggering students' interest, is quite important.

Analysis of the beauty curriculum also shows that the relation of subjects to the development of attributes relevant to the fulfilment of professional roles has been neglected in professional development. Chang (1998) argues that professional jobs exist to serve people and society. Many attributes are entailed in job achievement. The literature suggests the potential for the beauty industry to contribute to a dynamic and transformational economy. However, the beauty curriculum still focuses on technical skill and training for a dated system of skills certification.

The paradox is that the 'beauty' curriculum has very little content relating to aesthetics, design, creativity and emotional management. How to apply these theoretical subjects into practice is another matter omitted in teaching and learning. Some might argue that the HE level of beauty education aims at the managerial role. However, HABIA's report (2016) finds that only 9.2 per cent of the entire workforce engaged in the hair and beauty industry consists of salon managers. The remainder are consequently practitioners. A similar requirement primarily for practitioners is seen in Taiwan's industry, as industrial experts feel that graduates have unrealistic expectations (IE12).

Two interviewees (IE04 and IE09) in particular, both from the same company, stated that beauty graduates are currently seen as inflexible and superficial, not graceful and adaptable. In other words, 'beauty' is a quality that should be inherent in a beauty professional. Beauty education, by contrast, currently focuses too much on superficial makeovers or on acquiring treatment skills, meanwhile overlooking the most important aspect of any beauty professional:

bodily, mental and spiritual transformation by holistic training. One of the interviewees commented that aesthetic clinics prefer to employ candidates with nursing backgrounds rather than those from beauty programmes, but also that nursing graduates lack a sense of beauty. These examples imply that beauty graduates are restricted to working only at the beauty counter selling products, while their potential is completely undervalued. Overall, the structure of Taiwanese VET is too inflexible and broad, and its curriculum is too superficial: the overall emphasis is too skills-oriented. Recommendations for improvements to the VET are discussed in Chapter 8.

6.2.4 Issues on the quality of the industry service

The observations show that the quality of the beauty service in Taiwan varies, and that the treatment process is fragmented and disparate. The inconsistency may be due to a lack of standards. With this inconsistency, the quality of service and the requirements of performance can differ from place to place. For example, in Taiwan the role tends to be compartmentalised into different tasks performed by different people. Some employers prefer consultation to be conducted by managers or consultants rather than beauty therapists themselves, although the latter may sometimes be asked to attend consultations. The reason given for this preference is that beauty therapists have not been trained to carry out consultations, raising the concern that this could distort communication between consultants and practitioners, even though the (manager/ consultant) industrial experts have great confidence in their communication skills.

Another explanation is presented by Black (2004:117), who suggests that there is always a fear that beauty therapists may take their clienteles with them if they change jobs. IE01 – a salon owner and practitioner - did address this concern in the interview, explaining that the employer tends to share responsibilities in order to minimise the risk of losing clients. In the UK, on the other hand, this is an important part of the learner's and practitioner's role.

The level of service quality was determined by corporate values and culture, and sometimes by the owner. Particular business styles also target various customer types, so the Taiwanese beauty industry has developed a multitude of price-dependent means of satisfying the demands of a diverse customer range. Irrespective of where treatments and customers fall within those ranges, basic considerations including health and safety and hygiene should not be compromised.

Some unethical conduct was observed (see Observation charts in Appendix E). Those who indulged in such behaviour did not consider it as unethical, but as realistic. With no proper legislation, regulations and codes of practice to regulate the industry, it is very difficult to prevent such unethical practices if practitioners are not self-regulated. The concern is that customer health and safety is not ensured.

The variety of service procedures and qualities also implies that the Taiwanese beauty service lacks a standardised framework. Each business has developed its service structure in its own way. Some employers claimed that their service quality was high, others that the service they were providing met their target customers' demands. The informal interviews with customers after the observations revealed that they were largely unaware of what the service quality should be, so they could only trust the practitioners or the company.

The main concern is that both educational and industrial experts at both interview stages considered 'work ethics' to be the most important value of a beauty business (see Section 5.3.3.1.1) and the most important individual competence (see Appendix F-2 and G-2). This avowal does not reflect the disputes regarding inappropriate practices, nor the observational findings, leading to the suspicion that the interviewees were merely saying what they knew was expected while not adhering to those strictures in their own practice. In order to standardise the service structure and ensure that precautions are taken, however, a service model framework is developed in Chapter 7.

6.2.5 Issues regarding individuals' values, beliefs and attitudes

In this discussion, an individual can be any of the relevant stakeholders involved in practice and the profession, a range encompassing beauty lecturers, industrial practitioners and professionals and beauty students. The purpose of addressing this is because they are all important – indeed, potentially influential – members of the profession.

Individual values, attitudes and beliefs are shaped by culture. The elements that can be collectively called 'culture' are those that explain human behaviour and development (Porter 2000; Hui-Chun & Miller 2003; Rassin 2008). The explanation for some social phenomena including the skills, competence and wage gaps can be found in cultural values (Harrison 2000). Taiwan and the UK unquestionably have very different cultures, but working styles within the same profession did exhibit some similar values, beliefs and attitudes. The explanation could be that similar job roles, work content and working styles lead to similar traits. Moreover, technology makes information easier to access and share. Cultural differences also become less distinct with the increasing accessibility of information.

The interviews also showed that industrial experts appeared more aspirational for the profession than educational ones, especially those who worked for a distinct corporate culture. This finding is echoed by Jeng (2012), who points out that HE lecturers in Taiwan generally lack a proactive attitude. Such a culture could affect practitioners' values, attitudes and even professional career development. Hui-Chun and Miller (2003:24-25) also point out that "personal values affect corporate strategy and that managerial values affect all forms of organisational behaviour." This shows that such influence is mutual and reflective. It was suggested that positive values and attitudes should be established as early in the VET process as possible.

Dempsey (2009) perceives a clear and close connection between good practices and positive values, beliefs and attitudes. Only a few of the Taiwanese

practitioners at different professional levels approached for interview and observation demonstrated attitudes of self-motivation and pride in their industry, or expressed a desire to constantly broaden their outlook by engaging with other disciplines or industries.

Another finding arising from the literature and the interviews is that of lecturers' attitudes toward updating their industrial experience. The Taiwanese government has promoted a scheme of industrial work placements for lecturers to update their practice (see Section 5.3.1.2). However, this scheme was not appreciated, according to EE10. Beauty lecturers' professional values, beliefs and attitudes are one of the main factors in the gap between education and industry. What is surprising is that quite a few of the education experts lacked professional inspiration and aspiration, and some in both sectors admitted that the techniques they used to deliver the training for SC were dated and did not conform to industrial practice. The worst was that these lecturers were well aware of the problem, but still persisted in their current practices.

Some of the lecturers' values and opinions regarding beauty education were still at the primitive stage of promoting skill competitions, which they believed to boost student morale. Other lecturers were strongly opposed to such competitions, and in particular their role as a criterion of HE inspections (see Section 5.3.3.1.3). The ranking of programmes based on skill competitions has become part of the reason why beauty education is distorted. Although learners would gain from participating in them, only a few could really benefit.

The findings from auto-ethnographic experiences and interview feedback indicate that the wide range and large numbers of both Taiwanese and UK beauty students has resulted in deteriorating learner values, attitudes and beliefs over recent years. Taiwanese educational experts revealed that they recruit learners by not giving them enough information by which to determine whether they are on the right course. Beauty professionals tend to be perceived as lacking academic ability and as somewhat dull: it is probable that their

professional status is consequently less respected, which in turn influences their self-esteem. Mantle-Bromley (1995:382-383) acknowledges that a positive learning environment combined with lecturers' exertions could significantly affect learners' attitudes.

Industrial experts maintained that graduates are given unrealistic expectations. Their educational counterparts replied that they had to recruit learners by portraying an attractive future, and retain them by delaying work placements (during which students might drop out). The interview findings were that not only has the Taiwanese VET sector failed in its purpose of raising graduates' competence to the levels appropriate for work, but that it has also given graduates unrealistic expectations of developmental levels. The provision of a broader nurturing model to support individuals is discussed in Section 7.4, while recommendations for individuals are made in Section 8.

6.3 Reflection on the identification of competences

The nature of the profession has undergone radical changes thanks to rapid technological, economic and social developments, together with professional collaboration, leading to changes in the required professional competences. Advanced technologies allow customers to access, transmit and exchange information faster and more easily. They have consequently become more knowledgeable than ever and their behaviour has also changed drastically, as there are more choices regarding such things as digital media platforms to select, compare and purchase products. The changes in competences for beauty professionals manifest themselves in knowledge, skills and attributes that may even lie beyond the scope of their daily practice, and are identified in this study.

The introductory chapter describes how impending changes for beauty professionals involve more than just the execution of technical skills for makeovers and massages. It is, however, impossible to articulate what

competences will be required to fulfil the roles. In Section 2.2.3 the relationship between beauty, beauty practice and beauty professionals was discussed, and it was suggested that the elements of aesthetic design and emotional skills are important for fulfilling those roles. An element of creativity might also be required to sustain the effect. Interestingly, the findings from the primary data do not perfectly reflect those from the literature, according to which the interaction between beauty professionals and customers involves emotional conduct, comprehensive communication and analytical skills to raise the techniques and service offering to a higher level. Meanwhile, some existing studies of Taiwan related to the competences required by beauty practitioners focus too much on detailed subject knowledge and skills. Examples are Huang's (2003) study of salon managers and Xu's (1996) of beauticians at FE level (see Section 2.5).

Regardless of competence level, it is important at this point to clarify that subject knowledge and skills should be the basic requirement for graduate practitioners and professionals. Respondents agreed with this view. The identification of competences for the role of beauty practitioner is thus incomplete. Because the Taiwanese nurturing structure does not properly identify competences or establish competence standards, it offers no clear guidelines as to what competences the education sector should prepare its graduates for. Some interviewees, including the chairman of the department, admitted that the syllabus is structured according to industrial trends. It was clear that they recognised the trend without acknowledging the necessity of conforming to it. Industrial experts did remark that education's response to their needs was too slow (see Section 5.3.3.1.3).

In the expert interviews, the question of whether industrial experts are aware of the competences with which talents should be equipped surfaced. The Taiwanese beauty curriculum not only lacks a structure of competence standards, but also flexible levels of development. Too much emphasis on

obtaining NOL, which has no credibility in the beauty industry, only exacerbated the situation. Without guidance from a distinction in the levels required for beauty practitioners, the majority of FE graduates chose to upgrade their qualification to degree level. With a high enrolment rate in HE (Lin 2014), not only does HVET fail to upgrade beauty learners to a higher level of competence, it also does not enable them to find the right level of job or meet industrial requirements.

The skills, knowledge and attributes required for competence listed in the present study can be expanded by experts, whose viewpoint could be identified from the results. The competence ranking at the first interview stage clearly shows that, regardless of knowledge, skills or attributes, industrial experts' requirements for HE beauty graduates are overall higher than their FE equivalents, even though they did not consider the performance of HVET beauty graduates as outstanding compared to those of FE graduates. 'sales' and 'work ethics' are the most important for both FE and HVET graduates, whereas 'research', 'leadership', 'ability to manage others' and 'decisiveness' are the least.

It was assumed that there would be a gap between the competences expected from EEs or required from IEs for HVET beauty graduates. Because the study's instrument focuses on HVET beauty graduates, HVET's competences were ranked by IEs and EEs at both stages of interview. The competence ranking at both interview stages shows that the importance ranking of some components may differ, but only slightly. The only explanation for the gap is therefore that the competences are not implemented in the curriculum, even though their viewpoints are similar.

Surprisingly, both sectors' experts consistently rated 'work ethics' as the most and 'decisiveness' and 'bi/multi-lingual skills' the least important. The fact that English language skills are not needed for the beauty industry indicates that there are not many foreign customers. It also implies either that the Taiwanese

government has been promoting English in HE for international competitiveness irrespective of beauty industry requirements, or that the beauty industry lacks the vision to demand it.

IEs also retain their consistency in the requirement for 'breadth of knowledge' at both interview stages. The beauty industry's scope for expansion and collaboration with other domains implies that the requirement for breadth and depth of knowledge will outweigh skills. Skills can be acquired through training, but knowledge must be both comprehensive and applicable in practice.

It is arguable whether attributes can be taught, but they could, as Han (2003) suggests, be nurtured and developed by training and guidance. An instructor and therapist of the Spa, one of the workplaces observed, declared that they and their clients have often been invited to such occasions as arts events, concerts or body language training to stimulate their aesthetic awareness. They applied what they learned to their work. The quality of their service offering was at an obviously higher level than those of the others.

The literature describes an increasing demand for emotional and aesthetic skills, especially those appropriate to front-line service with customers (Witz et al. 2003; Glomb & Tews 2004; Williams 2003). If beauty professionals are classified as aesthetic or emotional workers, as the literature suggests (see Section 2.2.3.2), it is significant that the role of beauty professional be understood in terms of the correlation between their professional appearance and the corporate image. In addition, being an emotional worker makes it psychologically necessary to be able to deal with their own and customers' emotions. Interestingly, a UK professional's emotional conduct is considered to be as important as those of customers, while in Taiwan, professional's emotion is ignored (see Appendix F-2 and G-2).

Leadership and the ability to manage others was scored lowly by both educational and industrial experts, surprisingly, although managerial roles were

supposedly nurtured at HVET. Industrial experts interpreted this as fewer managerial positions being available, and this type of talent being found in the fields of business and marketing. The majority of beauty businesses are small or even single-person.

Of the three categories identified by EEs (knowledge, skills and attributes), the four highest-scoring aspects were all the latter: work ethics (62[33]), commitment (61), dependability and responsibility (60) and passion for the work (60). The competences that IEs required of HVET beauty graduates, including team working (60), work ethics (60) and honesty and integrity (60) came from the categories of skills and attributes. One unexpected finding was that no components of knowledge were represented among the highest ranking competences for HVET beauty graduates.

Apart from a knowledge of medical science and health care, beauty professionals at this level of treatment would require more of a broader knowledge of such topics as philosophy, culture and religion than technical skills, and the treatments given would be of psychological and intellectual rather than just practical value. This does not mean that technical skill is not important, but it should not be the focus of development. This knowledge could be applied to any industry in the beauty sector. In such cases, it should go without saying that professional skills related to beauty treatments have become the basic requirements with which practitioners should be equipped.

Passion, professional knowledge and skills are the three most acknowledged core competences for beauty professionals. The reason for identifying 'passion' as the most important core competence for beauty professionals is that interviewees saw it as solving many problems. They agreed that professionals would continuously improve, update and enhance their competence if a passion

[33] The score of the ranking

for the profession appeared as one of their attributes. The other two are related to specialist subject areas, which is somewhat surprising, as professional knowledge and skills are the fundamental criteria of expertise. Moreover, the answer appeared to be rather superficial and to lack profundity.

The concern raised by this study is that specialist knowledge and skills seem to be regarded as the answer to all questions involving professionalism. The range of attributes and skills highlighted by education and industry as important competences indicates the broader approach required. This mind-set has restricted the scope of professional development. Professionals at higher levels of professional development should be able to identify their own learning needs and bridge the gap themselves in the lifelong learning process.

6.4 Reflection on the characteristics of the UK's nurturing approach

This section highlights the characteristics identified by the UK document analysis and the auto-ethnographic experiences of learners, practitioners, lecturers and assessors, based on previous Taiwanese auto-ethnographic experiences. This also deals with the study's Objective One.

6.4.1 Development

The UK's nurturing system has an implicit developmental characteristic revealed in levels of academic and professional development, including CPD.

Levels of development can be clearly seen in the UK's QCF, which merges academic and vocational routes into one accredited framework (see 2.3.2.1). Underlying this credit-based structure are the transferability and flexibility of the progression route, allowing learners to manage the pace of their learning journey as required.

Levels of development can also be seen in the knowledge and skills underpinning the NOS in response to the UK's QCF, even though the NOS's

levels of development still needs further application to the beauty domain. Lower-level treatments require the ability to follow instructions, while those at higher levels involve more explanation, consideration and judgment. At each developmental level, learners are well informed on what the learning outcomes and assessment strategies are for each module. Learners are thereby made aware of what competences they are expected to achieve in order to complete a given qualification level.

Further in their CPD, the UK beauty professional bodies provide various short courses and events or activities by which professionals can update their knowledge and skills through the CPD process. Moreover, CPD is not restricted to vocational taught courses, but includes such methods as industrial experience and personal development. A minimum of CPD hours or developmental activities or outputs are required differently by professional bodies and organisations (Friedman 2012). For example, C&G requires that the assessors and quality assurers must complete minimum 30 hours of CPD annually (City & Guilds 2014:22). Whereas, the Federation of Holistic Therapists (FHT) (2015) defines CPD as a range of relevant developmental activities using points rather than hours. For instance, undertaking a case study would gain 5 points and the professionals would gain 3 points by preparing and delivering a lecture. This will encourage professionals, especially the self-employed, to engage with professional groups and communities to share their knowledge and experience.

However, this development appears to fragment after formal education, because professional development tends to depend on hours of CPD. The ability to identify learning needs is important for CPD if it is not to become a mere time-marking formality. Skill formation theory (see Section 3.3) demands that professional development should be continually extended to validate professional career status. Professional bodies could develop a structure by which to perform this function every five to 10 years, which will have the added

benefit of motivating practitioners to drive professional standards up to chartership levels (see Section 2.2.4).

6.4.2 Standards

An important finding from both the document analysis and the auto-ethnographic experiences in the UK is that the country has its national occupational standards, NOS. NOS are a type of competence standard established in the UK according to which the education and industrial sectors can develop training programmes. They are used to match standard levels to developmental levels. In addition, a standard that applies to both occupational and academic qualifications is the QCF or RQF, with broad level descriptors (given in Appendix D).

The lesson of the UK's approach is that standard-setting requires third-party input to ensure that all relevant stakeholders' voices are heard and that agreement is reached. In the UK, professional bodies have played this important role, which requires specialist industrial knowledge. These specialists could be awarding or examining bodies, so they could also take the role of auditor to ensure the maintenance of the standards.

Hager (1993) explains that standards exist to make the outcomes of competence consistent, but not the method by which those outcomes are achieved. They should also be flexible enough to allow each organisation and industry to interpret them in order to preserve their distinctiveness. Once a standard is established, standardisation processes are essential in order to regularise differences. Standardisation would thus not sacrifice creativity to outcome achievement. Any disagreements could be clarified in regular standardisation meetings, with the possibility of updates in future reviews of the standard. Good teaching and assessment practice can also be shared.

Standards should be designed to be flexible enough to permit interpretation at various developmental levels and to allow individual features to be maintained.

They could be also developed as frameworks so as not to restrict institutions' development of their own programmes. The majority of Taiwanese experts from both education and industry misunderstood what is entailed in a standard. Their perception was that of a rigid framework that restricts creativity and does not allow for distinctiveness.

"Competence is defined by National Occupational Standards (NOS)." (Roodhouse & Hemsworth 2004:7) This standard-based competence approach appears to be used as a guideline across the FE sector. The main point is that both industry and education function under the same guideline. The approach could therefore minimise the transition from one educational institution to another, from education to industry and from one job to another.

The document analysis reveals an inconsistency between the standards used in FE and HVET. NOS are widely employed in the FE sector, and there are currently attempts to promote them in HVET. It is important to note that NOS are embedded in the curricula of all FE beauty programmes, but only in some HVET ones. Some HVET beauty-related programmes employ benchmarks from other disciplines (see Section 5.2.1.1) instead of using the same NOS criteria. This inconsistency of standard in HVET could generate a gap in the transition from FE to HVET. However, the QCF level descriptors, which cover FE and HE, may assist in bridging the gap at HVET.

The consistency in the implementation of NOS into VET appears greater across the FE than the HVET sector. Roodhouse and Hemsworth (2004:4) argue that NOSs have been underutilised in the HE sector. They do not specify a reason, but the implication is that NOS have not yet been developed to degree level. Even so, Roodhouse and Hemsworth (2004:64) list 20 reasons for adopting NOS in HE; Swailes et al. (2004) likewise strongly recommend that NOSs should be promoted in HE, especially because of their strong ties with industrial stakeholders. More importantly, adopting the same standards could eliminate

the transitional gap between FE and HE. Strangely, there is a lack of research seeking to determine why HE has not adopted NOS for its curricula.

The UK's experience shows that, although the NOS is seen as too detailed, fragmented, narrowed and mechanical (see Section 3.2), its developmental levels are growing strongly. This is because professional bodies and industrial and educational stakeholders are presently all part of NOS's developmental steering group.

A standard can have different levels and scales, allowing it to be interpreted in various ways. However, in order to ensure that a standard fulfils its purpose, standardisation should be used to reduce differences.

In order to advance to a higher educational level, implicit criteria should be made explicit and implemented into performance criteria. However, as the literature suggests, with a rise in developmental level come more implicit competence requirements.

The review of NOS for the units of beauty therapy and make-up (see Section 5.2.1.2) showed that the outcome is overly simplified, the focus being mainly on underpinning knowledge and skills. That is to say that attributes are absent from NOS beauty-related performance criteria. This could pose a problem, as the standard could focus too much on explicit aspects rather than implicit elements. This might be ameliorated by embedding implicit values into the standard's developmental levels. More importantly, a standard not only places importance on consistency of assessment and QA, but it must also be maintained in a developmental, holistic, questioning and creative manner (Ollin & Tucker 2008:67).

Attributes should be embedded into NOSs and developed with reference to the levels of competence required to guide the development of the training programme. NOS would require attributes to be defined with explicit elements of performance at a lower level, while these would be demonstrated more

holistically at higher levels. While competence-based standards may not be practical for all types of occupation and profession, for the beauty industry, which is task-oriented, these could be practical.

6.4.3 Integration

Another important element of the UK's VET system is the integration of industry and education resources and approaches. As previously mentioned, standards are the significant element used to develop training programmes in both education and industry. They therefore allow the integration of teaching, learning and assessment in VET in the education sector, and practice in industrial settings. This could provide an example for Taiwan to copy.

Beauty-related legislation and regulations, industrial knowledge, health and safety and hygiene practices are not merely integrated into education and training, but are also embedded in assessment criteria. They are all mandatory in units at every level of training. All the performance and assessment criteria developed from NOS are covered in theoretical and practical learning and assessment.

Simulated learning is one example of how teaching, learning and assessment can be merged into a single learning strategy. Although budgetary restraints prevent facilities and equipment from keeping pace with industrial trends, they are adequate as a foundation of students' competence. More importantly, they are actually used in teaching, learning and assessment, not merely as promotional vehicles.

The wide range of teaching and learning strategies by different lecturers is permitted, as well as different assessment strategies, as long as they are all based on NOS specifications. This also allows assessors to assess any group objectively against the standards. Therefore, if they are completely integrated into practice, a learner can also be assessed at the workplace by any assessor.

This is a very important consideration that recommends itself strongly to Taiwan's nurturing structure.

6.4.4 Collaboration

Government, education, industry, individuals and all other relevant stakeholders in the training system have their specific goals, roles and functions. However, it is difficult to bring all these together without a platform to facilitate communication and interaction. This platform could be a method, person, unit, team or organisation that is an important element in collaborative projects. The UK uses various channels and platforms to facilitate such communication and interaction, if not directly then indirectly.

In a direct sense, an e-profile could be seen as a platform: it is used to construct a picture of an individual's assessment record, log-book and other features, developed and managed by professional bodies with engagement from education, industry and individual learners to allow effective communication and interaction. In addition, teams such as work-based learning teams play an important role in the FE sector in the coordination of education, industry and learners. Assessors – frontline specialists directly in contact with industry – are required to visit workplaces to assess work-based learners. They provide advice to industry, and feed any issues back to training centres such as colleges.

More indirectly, platforms could be set up to provide for collaboration between stakeholders. These channels have a significant purpose, not only in contributing knowledge to projects, but also in providing platforms by which the various stakeholders in collaborative projects can communicate. Examples are NGOs such as Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) and SkillsActive working with government, education, industry and individuals (SkillsActive 2015).

The UK government also tends to rely on professional bodies to make up for its limited understanding of the industry. The engagement of professional bodies

such as HABIA, a government-approved standard-setting body for the Hair and Beauty sector, not only promotes the establishment of NOS for the sector, but also helps the government tailor legislation and regulations to the relevant practices. These are then highlighted, implemented in VET and integrated into teaching, learning and assessment, both in college- and work-based learning, as mandatory units at every level.

HABIA also undertakes market research and skills surveys to identify skills shortages and to share industrial knowledge and techniques through a variety of events such as seminars, conferences or CPD. Professional bodies have also established their own codes of conduct, not only to guide their members' industrial practices, but also to offer them informal training, technical advice and other services. In the UK, several professional bodies beauty associations are recognised nationally and internationally (see Section 2.2.4).

The literature in the UK shows that too great a profusion of government organisations and professional bodies leads to confusion and overlapping functions (see section 2.2.4). The establishment of a single impartial professional body in Taiwan to unify and supervise the other professional bodies and associations could be a strategy for raising the standard of the beauty sector.

6.4.5 Assurance

In the UK, assurance was carried out to ensure the maintenance of standards and quality. The QA process is applied not only to teaching and learning, but also to assessment and examination. The quality assurance agency and the approach at FE and HVET is different. The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) regulates HE, while Ofsted is its FE counterpart. For assessment, the awarding or examining body takes charge of auditing in FE sector (see 5.2.2.2). However, the situation is somewhat complex for HVET because some HVET takes place in the FE sector. Although HVET employs an HE QA process, the assessment

criteria and process in practical assessments requires specialist assessors who are often not available, so these aspects are not included in the HE standard.

It is important to note that FE's assessment structure and QA process are simpler than those of HVET, in that HVET's QA system is more complicated because the awarding bodies can be either professional organisations or HE institutions. The development of HVET also vacillates between academic and vocational routes. In short, there is no tailored QA process for the HVET level.

The UK's QA system ensures that lecturers and assessors are under a certain amount of supervision, meaning that they must demonstrate their teaching and assessment skills under the QA procedure. The system is structured: however, the findings suggest that the assessment and internal verification processes at FE are often not followed: the individuals who are supposed to safeguard the QA system can often cause the problem (see Section 5.2.2.2).

The UK's auto-ethnographic experience reveals the assessment structure and the related QA process as another key feature that could be introduced to Taiwan, which does not have such a system to monitor assessors' abilities and assessment decisions and to support their needs. One purpose of both internal and external verification processes is to ensure that the standards are maintained.

6.5 Reflection on the practicality of the UK's approach in Taiwan

This section reflects on the practicality of adopting the UK's approach in Taiwan according to the Taiwanese culture and learning environment. The elements identified from the UK's training system require much input from various stakeholders. More importantly, each element is closely related to all the others, thereby strengthening the system. Individuals should be at the centre of that training system.

The problems identified in Taiwan (see Section 1.2) show that the fundamental causes of a gap, regardless of whether it is between FE and HE educational institutions or between education and industry, must be identified in order to treat the root of the problem, not just its symptom. It follows that Taiwan needs three types of approach to integrate its resources and integrate all relevant stakeholders. This may address the issue identified in Taiwan of the disconnection between stakeholders.

The first approach is to set a standard, providing common ground for relevant stakeholders to communicate. In the UK, a broad QCF structure of levels of qualification is established. The NOS gives detailed occupational levels of competence for each specialist field. More specifically, the UK's experience shows that the NOS unobtrusively brought the relevant stakeholders together. Through NOS, standardisation allows individuals within the same organisation or from different stakeholders to share and standardise their practices. It is not only beneficial at the individual level, but also at the organisational one. A similar type of structure to the UK's NOS – i.e. a nationally agreed occupational standard (NAOS – a tentative name) – would be greatly beneficial, as long as the government or government-appointed organisations could initiate it and ensure that every stakeholder's opinion is valued. Regular review, update and renewal of the standard is a must.

Establishing a NAOS in Taiwan will provide a benchmark for developing training programmes, learning outcomes, teaching and learning and assessment criteria, regardless of the educational institutions, the private sector, industrial training, CPDs or other organisations provide it. It will foster development, delivery and assessment according to one standard. The standard's levels of development should be coherent from FE to HVET. Some weaknesses of the UK NOS could be avoided and strengths enhanced. By setting standards, the problems of communication between education and industry can be alleviated. This is clearly overlooked in the existing literature on Taiwan.

There is also no assessment structure that allows learners to be assessed by different lecturers or assessors in Taiwan, in the education sector and the workplace. Setting standards could therefore ensure that assessment is coherently structured. This could be a new experience for implementation in Taiwan. The individual's assessment strategies and methods would not be much affected.

The immediate effect can be seen in work placements, as this is the most important and common Taiwanese strategy for bridging the gap and increasing relevance to industry. With a standard in place, targets could be set for learners in workplaces. Industrial trainers, instructors and supervisors share responsibility for teaching practical subjects while educators can focus on the theoretical input and the development of competence. Assessment could be carried out across workplaces. More importantly, learning at workplaces is guaranteed.

Secondly, establishing a standard requires a platform through which all relevant stakeholders can communicate. In the UK, the government has appointed a body to assist standard-setting and tailoring the relevant legislation and regulations for the beauty sector. UK professional bodies also play an important role as awarding and examining bodies. A qualification-oriented culture in Taiwanese society leads to the unlikelihood that any professional body could award formal education certificates, as this function still belongs to the Ministry of Education, which does not include informal certification. However, a professional organisation could be involved as a standard-setting and examining body as part of the QA system, as long as that body is creditable and trustworthy.

Thirdly, a QA system encompasses an Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) and an External Quality Assurance (EQA) process, respectively carried out by an Internal Verifier (IV) and an External Verifier (EV). The purpose of carrying out a QA process, in particular for assessment, is to ensure the standard is

maintained through the requirements of standardisation and the quality of assessment is assured, with a verifying assessment process by other assessors who are qualified as an internal verifier to examine the samples. Through the verification process, the assessment process and assessment decision could be verified. More importantly, the assessor's assessment ability could be reviewed and any support implemented if necessary. This aspect would be practical for application in Taiwan. For EQA, an external specialist from another institution would be appointed to visit and verify the assessment process, including examination of samples. In addition, a formal review of the programme will be undertaken regularly by the professional body. The external examiner aspect could be introduced effectively in Taiwan. Once a professional body is established, review and validation of specialist programmes within the field would be an important function of the body. Due to the deeply rooted Confucian culture in Taiwan, challenging lecturers or assessors' authority is considered disrespectful. However, it is important for stakeholders to understand that the QA process is not designed to challenge their authority, but to identify their support needs in order to ensure that the quality of assessment is maintained. The difficulty is that Taiwan's education structure lacks a support system for lecturers, assessors and learners alike.

The interview findings suggest that a substantial reform in vocational education and training is required, and that this is feasible and quite possible. However, funding is needed to initiate such substantial reform.

6.6 Summary of Chapter 6

This chapter began by discussing the problems in Taiwan's training system, arguing that the fundamental issues indicate a fragmented structure in relation to all relevant stakeholders. The policies and strategies promoted by the Taiwanese government were found to be rendered ineffective by limited understanding on the part of the industry. The collaborative projects embarked on to bridge the gap between education and industry likewise appear to be

abortive because of the lack of a platform from which to ameliorate the differences between both sectors, each of which functions in its own way in its own interests, leaving individuals at a loss as to their correct course of action.

The qualification structure could be transformed to levels of progression in order to map against the future establishment of levels of competence standard and to be integrated into a skill formation structure for professional development. This will allow more flexibility in individuals' learning journey. The breadth and depth of knowledge and skills within the qualification structure could be re-adjusted to fit into different levels, incorporating the development of attributes. Additionally, issues with the current curriculum were identified, which should be reviewed and redeveloped in collaboration across the industry (within the professional body), with all areas of the curriculum applied to the specialist field and designed to develop the required competences.

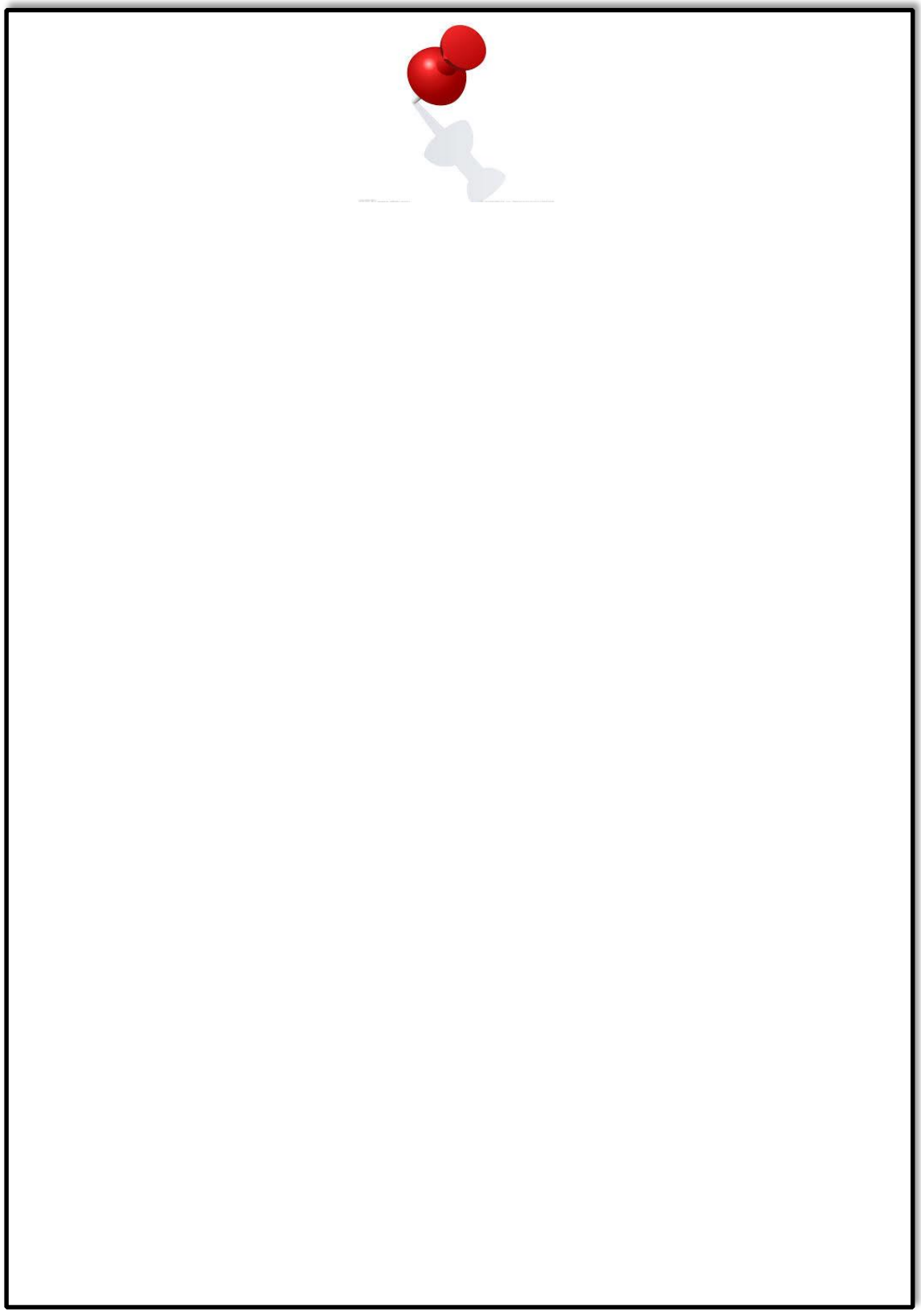
Consistency can be seen in both education and industry experts' competence rankings, although some components might appear in a different order. These important aspects clearly emphasise attributes and cognitive skills for graduates, which have been overlooked in the training structure.

This section has also reviewed the UK's approach, the characteristics of which could be summarised as follows.

Standards are the key to unify the training structure and integrating teaching, learning, assessment and practice. This could alleviate the inconsistency of service quality and minimise the unethical practice observed in the beauty industry. Standard levels can also provide a guideline to assist professional development. Both education and industry could also communicate according to a uniform standard. UK professional bodies were found to have embraced a variety of the system's characteristics, including standard-setting, assuring the quality of standards, and facilitating communication between education and industry, as training providers and technical advisors to support professional

development. Establishment of a professional body in Taiwan would complement the government's insufficient understanding of the industry. Last but not the least, the QA process is one element that ensures the quality of teaching and assessment.

These three key characteristics of the UK's approach were identified that could alleviate some of the fundamental problems in Taiwan's training structure. A broader response to these issues is given in Chapter 7, with the development of a series of models, and in Chapter 8, with recommendations for each stakeholder.



Chapter 7: Outcome: Model development

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the development of proposed models as strategies that could be recommended to Taiwanese government. There are three models merged in one, which are the Service model and the Work Placement model, embedded in the Nurturing model. Their relationship is shown on Figure 7-1 and they will be explained sequentially from centre to outer. All models could work independently, but it would be more effective if they function together as a whole.

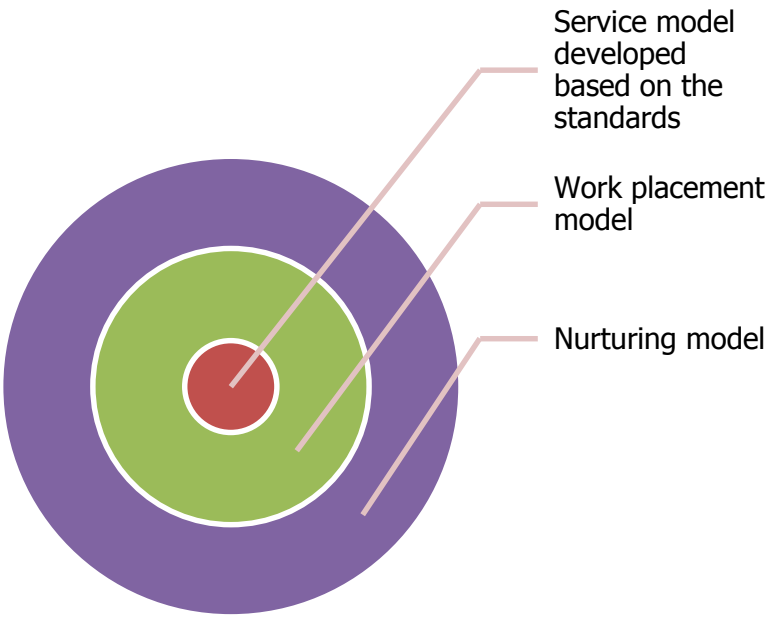


Figure 7-1: The relationship between models

7.2 Proposed model one: Service model

The Service model is a model of service structure specially designed for beauty treatment service. The purpose of developing this Service model for beauty practitioners in this study is to suggest a guideline for guiding and improving their competence of performing a task, which could be simply referred to a service, treatment or a make-up design. It is not a Standard Operating

Procedure (SOP), but it could be developed into a SOP based on the framework.

The Service model is an end product of the auto-ethnographic experience research in the UK. The pattern found crosses all the training units within the educational and training specifications that were discovered through practice and was confirmed through the analysis of the relevant documents. The initial structure of the service procedure is a service framework for beauty practice, which was formed through the auto-ethnographic experience as a learner, shaped after being a practitioner and validated through the time of being a lecturer and assessor.

The Service model as a framework of beauty treatment service forms a unified structure to be applied to both education and industry. It can be applied to any kind of treatment and promises a great flexibility for both education and industry to develop its own uniqueness within the framework. Also, this model could be used to accelerate learning and be a framework for developing any new treatment. This model is outlined as a general framework for the exploration of competence in this study and could be further developed into different levels of practice and competence.

The drive for developing the Service model as a conceptualised model is to provide an effective strategy to improve beauty professional's competence. Through direct observation at workplaces in Taiwan, it was found that the service quality was varied due to the lack of a standard. By implementing the Service model into VET, the service structure could be standardised, but not the techniques. In other words, individual features and creativity could still be applied into the service procedure. The second facet is that recommending the Service model to industrial practice allows the service quality to be assured. Also, the Service model could also accelerate learning and assist beauty professionals to apply it into diverse applications as a framework and possess it as a transferrable skill.

7.2.1 Identification of Hypothesis for Service Model

The Service model was initially identified as a framework for the purpose of accelerating the completion of assessments. During the process of the learning experience, an outline was discovered through the plan and preparation for assessments. Common features were found through developing an assessment checklist on Excel (Appendix J). In order to effectively pass 265 different assessments across three qualifications (Level 2 and 3 Beauty Therapy and Level 3 Artistic Make-Up and Special Effects) within a nine months' time frame, the plan, preparation, technical procedure and care advice learned in the class was broken down into steps in Excel format as a memory note. Through this organisation, the similarity between those applications across make-up services and beauty treatments was found. Furthermore, the repetition brought out a pattern, which was initially established as an outline for treatment/application/assessment.

The outline was initially established into three sections: Equipment & Materials, Preparation/Health & Safety Check and Process (see Appendix J), in particular for the purpose of preparing assessments. Through the process, a pattern surfaced when more checklists for treatments were created, as some areas were found to be the same or only a few changes needed to be made to adjust for the treatment purpose.

Although the pattern was found, the conceptual structure behind the pattern needed to be identified in order to illuminate the pattern. A further investigation was undertaken. Nevertheless, the important discovery is that various types of treatment could be fitted into this semi-framework even though some details were not covered in teaching and learning. In other words, if it could be developed into a framework, this conceptualised framework could accelerate teaching and learning.

Through the auto-ethnographic experience as a practitioner at beauty salons, the outline of the treatment procedure was experimented with and applied to

the service of all the beauty treatments.[34] It was found that a certain level of service quality is guaranteed by following the framework. The practitioners of the salon may or may not recognise the pattern, but these four stages were, to some extent, practised through the services carried out by other therapists in the salon. From the observations, it was found that the time for consultation was sometimes shortened, simplified or omitted due to various reasons such as delay in the treatment, especially for returned customers. It demonstrated the usability and flexibility of the outline in industry.

At this stage, the outline was merely a hypothesis as the theoretical knowledge behind the pattern needed to be further justified. The understanding of this framework was much improved when the auto-ethnographic experience progressed to the stage of being a lecturer and assessor.

7.2.2 Development of the Service model

After the pattern had been identified and experimented with at the initial stage, the auto-ethnographic experience of being a lecturer and assessor was a substantial step forward through the access to a greater variety of resources such as handbooks and assessment books published by the awarding bodies and their application in teaching and learning. The final piece of the jigsaw, the NOS, could explain the pattern (see Section 5.2.1.2), which confirmed the hypothesis. That is to say that the pattern could be traced in the NOS. Thus, four stages, *preparation*, *consultation*, *application* and *care advice*, across three phases (before, during and after treatment/ application/ assessment) were further outlined based on the NOS. Although this was a very basic structure,

[34] The pattern was found and tested with all the assessed treatments at the beauty salon of the College and the treatments carried out at the beauty salon. Regardless of what the treatment is, preparation, consultation, application and care advice are part of the treatment process. Some practitioners may simplify or skip consultation and care advice, which is not encouraged.

the relevant information for any treatment newly learned or developed could be situated into these four stages in a logical sequence. Certainly, some alternatives could be further added to take extra actions if necessary. Those precautions could be easily adapted into the framework of four stages.

These four stages were developed into six stages, as a model of the service framework, which is proposed as a framework for the service procedure of beauty treatment services. The extra two stages are *record* and *evaluation*. The stage of record is normally embedded in the assessment criteria as part of after treatment. It was established as an independent stage because it is essential for learners to develop note keeping for detailed customers' information and medical history including contra-indications and contra-actions and develop an understanding of confidentiality of the data. It is also useful to review learners' reading and writing skills. Evaluation or reflection is the final stage of the treatment service as it is not only to evaluate the outcome of the treatment, but also the performance of the practitioner/professional. The benefit of developing a service framework is to assist beauty practitioners/professionals to standardise a structured treatment procedure.

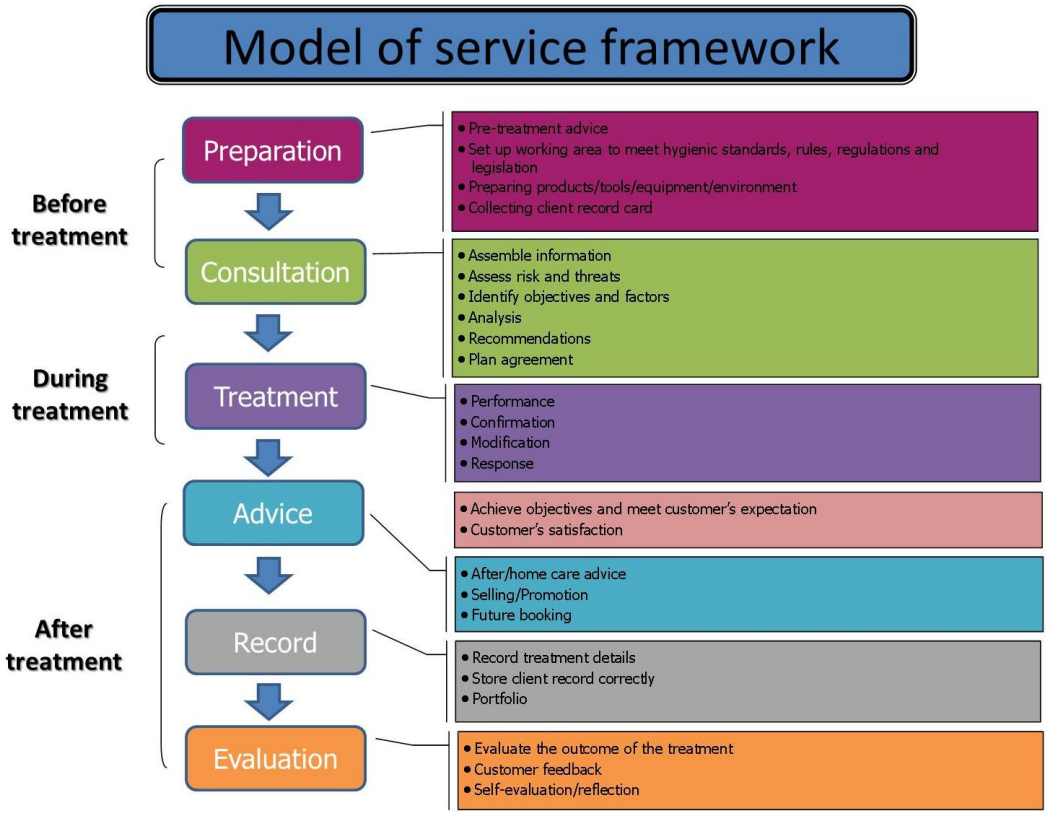


Figure 7-2: Outcome 1 - Model of service framework

The proposed service model for beauty practice as a guideline is divided into three phases:

- **Before treatment:**

The job content involved before treatment depends on the treatment needs. Some particular treatments such as, for instance, spray-tanning will require pre-treatment/pre-care advice or tinting treatments must have a patch test 24 to 48 hours prior the treatment and so on. Pre-treatment advice normally occurs at the stage of booking and is advice for the client to prepare themselves before the treatment. The purpose of pre-treatment advice and precautions to be taken prior to the treatment is to prevent any allergic reaction that might occur and to enhance and prolong the effect of the beauty treatment.

Apart from any particular preparation processes, a contra-indications check (indicating the inadvisability of and the possible danger of the beauty treatment) and consultation are a generic process for all practices.

1. Preparation/plan

Preparations include preparing the work station (make-up stand, chair, couch, trolley), the environment (such as temperature, ventilation, lighting, music/sound, and aroma) and practitioner himself/herself (image, hygiene), as well as checking products/tools/equipment for the treatment. The tools/equipment should be in good working order, cleaned and sanitised before use. The prepared products for sensitive skin are suggested because it is a safe practice before analysing the skin for a new client. After identifying the client's skin type and condition, the products, tools or equipment could be modified after the consultation and skin analysis to meet the client's needs and requirements. For a return client, the preparation should be according to the record. All the preparation and planning stage before the treatment has to be flexible and to pay attention to detail.

2. Client Record

The client record card should be collected and checked in advance. Client record cards contain the client's personal information, lifestyle, medical history, analysis record, the history of treatment and products used and so on. The information could be a reminder and a reference for therapists/make-up artists to perform a consistent service and make a rational judgement at the stage of consultation. The confidentiality of all the information is guarded by the Data Protection Act. If any allergic reaction occurs, the allergic reaction and action taken must be recorded in the client record. Even though the allergies may have developed after

the client left the premises, the standard procedure is to advise the client to report back and it should be recorded at once.

3. Consultation/presentation

The consultation is a significant part of the treatment (Gould 2006). The consultation stage is normally carried out after the customer has arrived and before performing the treatment. There are some basic questions for practitioners to ask, to identify the customer's objectives, experiences, expectations, requirements and needs from the treatment service. The time needed for this stage will be different for new customers and returned customers.

Based on the objectives identified, contra-indications must be carried out according to the area(s) involved in the treatment service. This is the most dynamic stage of all because the questions would be generated differently to fit for individuals in order to identify, analyse and form a treatment plan. Some clients might be more reserved and cautious than others: thus, it requires more skills to allow clients to open up and place their trust in the therapist. However, the treatment will not be carried out if there are contra-indications or it is not agreed by both parties of therapist and customer.

It is important to note the differences in the consultation stage for beauty therapy treatment and make-up service. For general make-up service, the make-up artist needs to present the design idea to the client after the consultation and to modify the idea during the process if necessary.

For special occasions such as theatre/film make-up, the consultation stage might be omitted or briefly carried out, sometimes alongside the work due to time constraints. This is an exceptional case. The presentation of the design ideas in this case would be discussed in the

meeting with the director of play/film, the crew and make-up team, not to individuals such as actors/actresses according to personal experience as a freelancer. The modification of the make-up design is normally discussed with the director, not the individuals due to the specification of the script. Although some modifications might be made during the process, any significant change needs to be confirmed with the director. In other words, this stage could be more rigid or dynamic than beauty treatment, so that make-up artists have to be very responsive and flexible.

This stage involves certain levels of soft skills such as communication skills and professional knowledge. Not only will the skin or/and lifestyle be analysed during the consultation stage, but also medical history, while contra-indication may be result in the treatment or design idea being prevented or restricted. This step is important for practitioners/professionals to make a judgement and suggest an appropriate treatment plan for meeting the customer's requirements and needs after the client's expectations have been explored.

- **During treatment:**

This stage is the main performance stage and varies from treatment to treatment. The complexity of this stage could be affected by the numbers and the types of treatment. It is very common to have more than one treatment/assessment to be carried out on a customer: thus, the complexity of more than one treatment does challenge the practitioner's ability to plan a sequence logically within the agreed timeframe. In order to ensure that the procedure is running smoothly, the treatment(s) have to be planned carefully as any delay could affect the next booking or lose the profit.

The complexity also involves types of treatment. The correct order could effectively save treatment time. For instance, waxing treatment has to be

carried out 48 hours prior to spray tanning treatment and a patch test for spray tanning is requested 24 to 48 hours prior to the treatment and so on. Also, an incorrect order could irritate the skin and minimise the effect from the treatment.

The competence of performing a treatment and interaction with the customer throughout the process are the main focus at this stage. Precautions need to be taken and the customer needs to be warned as contra-indication may occur during the treatment. The degree of dexterity and proficiency will be directly linked to the customer's satisfaction.

- **After treatment:**

After treatment involves after/home care advice given, evaluation and recording treatment details. This stage is a good opportunity for practitioners to promote the products and further treatments. After seeing the client off, the client record card has to be updated and must be stored correctly. This stage is the end of the service and should leave the customer with a positive experience.

1. Care advice

This is the last stage of the service that engages with the customer. Being able to provide correct and thoughtful after and home care advice is critical for the client as it is an opportunity to gain the trust of the client and show professionalism to the client.

The customer will be fully informed on what activities should be avoided after the treatment in order to maximise the treatment effect and the home care for a certain period of the time to prolong the effect. Additionally, the client needs to be guided on how to deal with the removal of accessories such as false eyelashes and/or to respond correctly if an unknown situation or allergy occurs. Further treatment advice and products promotion normally will be given at this point.

2. Recording

This is the last stage of the process, reflecting back to the beginning stage of the client record. After the treatment/service, it is important to record all the details including the products used, any contra-action that occurred during the treatment, the setting on the equipment, the products being purchased, the recommendations on future treatment, etc. Also, it should be recorded if the customer had any allergic response after the treatment. The detailed recording is to assist any professional working on the client's future treatment.

3. Evaluation

There are two types of evaluation. The first type is to evaluate the outcome of the treatment. The customer's feedback will be provided in different formats such as oral or written forms. The degree of client's satisfaction is surveyed for a new input. The other type of evaluation also can be a reflection of the professional on the performance itself. The depth of evaluation could reflect the different stage of expertise.

The Service model was constructed from the UK's FE vocational education and training: however, the NOS lacks development and promotion into the HE level. In Section 7.1.3 below, the theoretical base of the model is developed to provide the meaning of the behaviour in the job performance.

7.2.3 Langdon's Language of Work model applied to the Service model

The Service model emerged from analysis of repetitive patterns of practical procedure, which was formed into a theoretical framework. This framework contains the necessary skills, knowledge and attributes to complete a task. Without giving a meaning to this framework, it would be merely a procedure. According to Langdon & Marrelli (2002), it is important to identify competences not only to look at the outcomes, but also to identify the course of events

needed to achieve the outcomes. Langdon & Marrelli devised six components (inputs, conditions, process, outputs, consequences and feedback) (see Figure 7-3) to give a meaning to the connection of each part of a job performance.

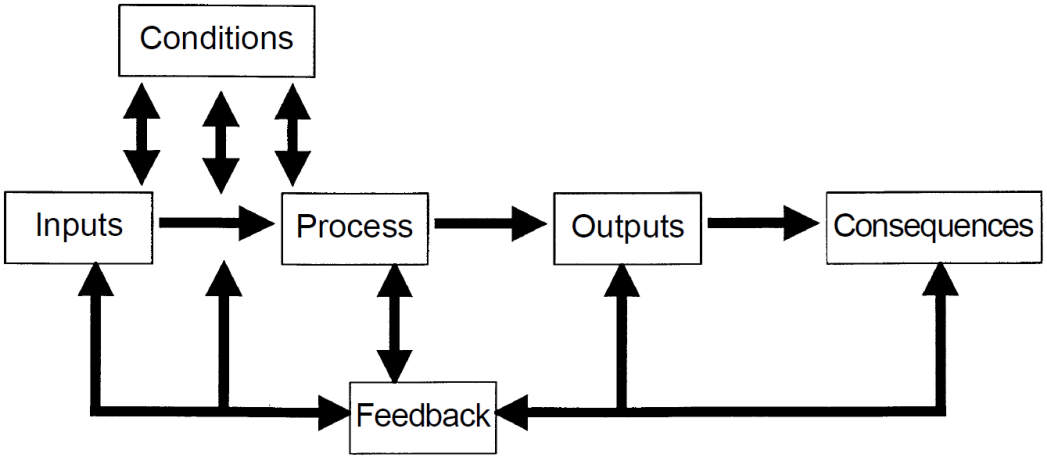


Figure 7-3 The Language of Work Proforma (Langdon & Marrelli 2002:19)

The six components in the job performance model were interrelated, as: "certain outputs (deliverables) and consequences (results) were produced by using certain inputs, under certain conditions (rules and regulations), through a set of process steps, aided by feedback from various sources" (Langdon & Marrelli 2002:19). Comparing this model with Rummler's situation-specific model of human performance (see Figure 7-4), mentioned in Hoffmann (1999:277), the mechanisms of human performance in a job situation were broken down into five elements. This has been used for defining competency/competence, identifying performance issues and instructional design.

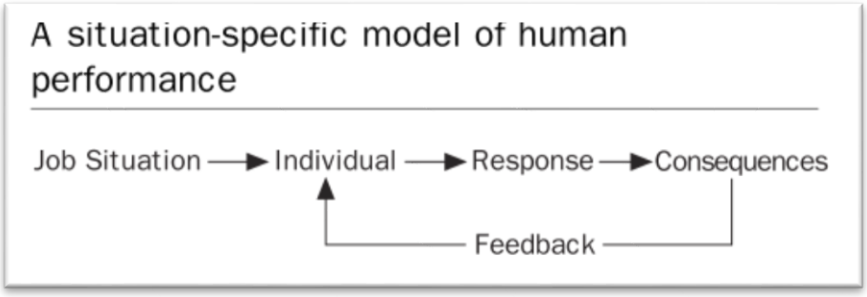


Figure 7-4: Rummler's model of human performance

The response to a job situation is shown by an individual's action, which demonstrates their competence. In this model, the ability to respond to situations should be based on the inputs that the individual is equipped with as a starting point. The consequences could be a measure of the satisfaction of various customers with the performance of the treatment. However, what is missing in Rummler's model is conditions, as every job situation might involve policies, rules, regulations and legislation. Performance tends to look at the outcome of a task, but though the outcome could be satisfying, the process may be debateable. Boyatzis (1982) considered that being consistent with the conditions is an important measure for an effective performance. He also explained that there are only certain competences of the person that enable him/her to demonstrate the appropriate specific actions needed in the job situation.

In order to introduce a meaning to the service procedure, Langdon's Language of Work model structure was implemented into the Service model. This is used to explain the meaning behind the procedure (see Figure 7-5). The reason for adopting Langdon's model is because his model was considered to be the most inclusive and straightforward to implement into job performance and is relevant to all levels.

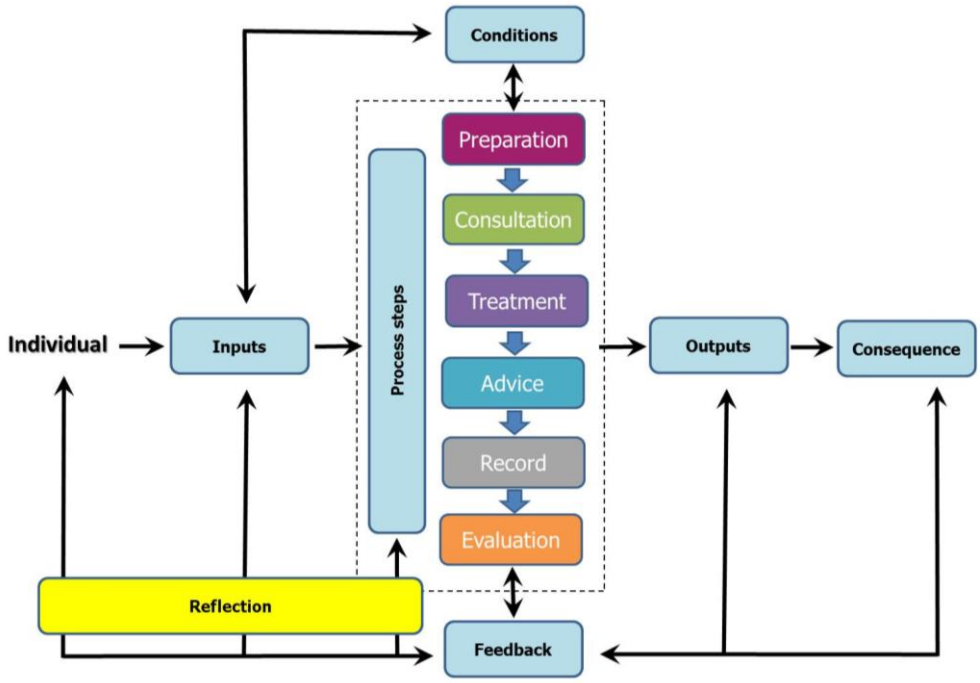


Figure 7-5: The Language of Service Model

Conditions indicate the rules, regulations, policies, standards and codes of practice covering professional and organisation levels. They govern every stage and level of performance. The six steps of the service framework (Figure 7-2) signifies the process steps as a core of performance: hence, the majority of job competences required to execute the process (Langdon & Marrelli 2002). Each stage of the performance requires different competences. More importantly, the competences for achieving the process will lead to the outputs and consequences. The outputs are considered as tangible and intangible end products. The positivity and negativity of the outputs could result in different consequences.

Up till this stage, the focus is more on the task itself rather than the individual's performance. The feedback from customers, peers, managers, supervisors or the result itself will be an orientation for the organisation's or individual's improvement or reinforcement. Although feedback given, regardless of whether it is positive or negative in its result to individuals, could provide a guide for

practitioners to adjust, correct or progress their practice. However, the effectiveness of feedback still depends on the quality of the feedback.

The quality of the feedback could be just some kind words or a truthful response from the clients or the member of staff. Therefore, practitioners' self-reflection on their performance is imperative for their professional development, in the inputs and process steps. The inputs were signified as resources or triggers: however, inputs are also individuals' competences, which affect the outputs.

7.2.4 Test and evaluation of the Service model

Through direct observation at workplaces in Taiwan, the usual service procedure was seen to be varied from place to place, resulting in the difficulty of controlling the quality of service. Hence, beauty service in Taiwan focuses on the treatment itself rather than the whole treatment service. Moreover, the influencing factors identified, such as the environment, customer's skin condition, hygiene and health and safety, that may restrict or limit the treatment, seem to be weighted differently according to the business owner. Clearly, the majority of factors are ignored not only because of lack of knowledge, but also due to the costs and profit.

The Service model (Figure 7-2) was initially tested in the UK through auto-ethnographic experience (see Section 5.2.2 and 7.2.1) and the second stage interview in Taiwan. After four interviews were executed (see Section 5.3.3), they all showed interest in employing the model. They were requested to wait until the study was completed and published. In order to prevent plagiarism of application of the Service model, the rest of the interviews were cancelled and the decision was made that the Service model would be considered as a conceptualised model.

There were two interviews carried out in the UK. The first interviewee was a senior beauty lecturer (UKEE-D). She acknowledged that she was not aware of

the pattern embedded in NOS and agreed that this model would be useful for teaching and learning. The other interview was with a CAM (UKEE-G). The CAM was also one of the members in the steering group for developing new standards. She explained that she developed the new standards for the unit of facial treatment, based on the existing standards. She admitted that she had not noticed that there is a pattern in NOS too and she approved that it would be useful for being used to develop a new standard.

Regarding the testing in Taiwan, it was not easy to explain and test the model as we do not have this type of structure in Taiwan. The two Taiwanese interviewees were experienced beauty professionals in both education and industry. One of them is a founder and director of a cosmetic company (IE05). The other is a lecturer and an industrial trainer/instructor (EE06). They were both very positive on the benefit of implementing this model into education and industry. They also believe that the service standard and quality would be higher. Also, the knowledge of hygiene, health and safety will have to be put into practice according to the structure.

However, they also shared some concerns. The first concern is whether the uniqueness of service might be not so distinctive if the procedure is standardised. The question surfaced due to the term 'standard'. As previously mentioned (see Section 7.2.2), the model is a logical procedural framework, so that distinctive features could be further added to enhance the treatment service as long as the conditions are complied with throughout.

Secondly, they questioned whether the institutions and the beauty industry would be willing to adopt this model, especially as there is no regulation to enforce the implementation, let alone when the execution of authority is weak. The implementation of the model is a benefit not only for both sectors to establish a common ground to bridge their differences, but also to develop practitioners' transferrable skills, which could reduce the pre-job training costs. By implementing the model into education and industry, beauty practitioners

could possess it as a transferable skill as the principle is the same apart from the applications.

In Taiwan, according to one of the interviewees (IE12), who was a director of a salon chain, admitted that the service providers often just changed the title of treatment services or alter the package of the service content and then re-advertise it as new to attract customers. This phenomenon could be explained based on Taiwanese consumer behaviour, which was explained in Section 2.2. As previous chapters have addressed, the beauty industry is a fast moving business. The stability of education and training has to be established on a theoretical framework, which could be applied to the majority of applications in order to respond to the changes.

7.3 Proposed model two: Work placement model

7.3.1 Problems in the work placement scheme in Taiwan

According to the latest literature, a gap between education and industry still exists (see Section 1.2). Work placement is the most common scheme that the educational sector currently use to connect with industry and to provide learners with a real world experience in Taiwan (see Section 5.3.3.1.3). Lin et al. (2008) also point out a lot of problems and challenges in the work placement scheme in Taiwan. The main problems could be summarised as due to ineffective communication, which is also confirmed from interviewees. The feedback from the interviews suggests that industry was not familiar with the schemes. The lack of a clear guideline for relevant stakeholders involved in the scheme was highlighted. Without clear guidelines, the responsibility cannot be clarified and the outcome is unable to be examined, which ends up with nothing definite.

Accroding to the data analysis findings, the main problem of the work placement scheme in Taiwan is that the relevant stakeholders in the scheme are working apart and it clearly lacks a joint component. In Taiwan,

government and the educational sector are criticised as lacking in industrial knowledge, but the scheme appears to be education-led. Additionally, there is a lack of platform for education and industry to communicate and interact. More importantly, government and the educational sector lack strategies to motivate industry's engagement.

Also, from the interviews, the purpose of the work placement was only set out for learners to experience the real world of work - but what competences learners are expected to gain and whether learners have achieved them seemed not to be raised. This so-called real world of work experience could be randomly gained due to the poor management and lack of supervision, as Turner & Morgan (2006:454) highlighted from the findings of the work placement study by Bourner, T. and Ellerker, M. (1998). In other words, learners' learning rights are not guaranteed at workplaces during work placements.

All educational experts consistently considered the work placement scheme as the most efficient approach of assisting graduates to gain real world experience and considered extending its length of time. However, it could be problematic if what learners could learn from industry cannot be assured. Also, the interviewees raised another positive point for the scheme given, which was that some learners could obtain employment after graduation. The question is whether students could learn just by physically being there and whether the learners received any support to learn from the experience. It is also questionable whether the industry has met the expectation of learners or stimulated learners' interest. It was found that some educational experts overrated the effectiveness of their approach towards industries.

These findings reflect implicitly that industrial experts, in general, were undertaking a laid-back approach and did not share a social responsibility in nurturing talents.

> *"Now chances are ... We have three to four thousand graduates from cosmetics and cosmetology programmes a year,…and the industry has vacancies to fill, so when you talked about work placement, let's be frank, every university wants to send out their students to have a work placement. The question is why cannot they [learners and also practitioners] stay? Don't you think that these industries should, in turn, review themselves?"* (EE01)

Some companies were perceived as being reluctant to have learners. In particular, there were two interviewees that showed zero interest in recruiting any graduates from beauty related programmes (see Section 5.3.3.1.3). Hence, the difficulty of finding a variety of industrial companies that are willing to collaborate and provide the work placement is understated and overlooked.

Undoubtedly, work placement schemes are recognised as an ultimate opportunity for learners to develop their employability, transferrable skills and career plan (Murakami et al. 2008; Turner & Morgan 2006). The work placement scheme is still agreed to be an effective tactic that the HVET sector would implement, to tie a strong connection with industry. However, there are too many uncontrolled factors on the side of the education sector and learners. The uncontrolled factors include no learning outcomes specified, no specific learning targets set and no assessment arranged to ensure students' learning quality in workplaces. The quality of learning at workplace is heavily reliant on the employer. Thus, developing a work placement model to improve learners' competence and assist the communication between learners, education and industry is being of great urgency.

7.3.2 Work placement model

Based on the finding of the analysis, the second model proposed is a model for work placement and the joint component is the key to this model. The focus of this model falls on the relationship between education and industry, incorporating the professional body if there is one. Currently, Taiwan does not

have one, so this model should be flexible enough to be functioning with one or without one.

The length of time and approach for work placements in Taiwan has been explained in Chapter 2 and 5. The findings suggest that HVET institutions intend to extend the length of work placement to half a year or a year. However, if the placement lacks structure and a placement is considered just a place for learners to stay and gain some work experience, not only would HVET receive more complaints from learners for wasting time and tuition fees, but also the function of HVET would be completely lost.

The motivation for proposing a work placement model is because it was considered to be the most common and effective approach, that definitely will be used. The purpose of the model is not only to bridge the gap between education and industry in Taiwan, but also to suggest an approach for the relevant stakeholders to function as a team. The work placement model was progressively developed through the stage of document analysis and was formed after gaining the feedback from the first stage of interview. In other words, the work placement model was developed based on the problems identified from interviews and learned from the UK's experience.

According to the UK's approach, assessment in the workplace in FE is mature and sophisticated. Assessment in workplaces is a strategy to bring the visiting lecturer/assessor, learner and industry supervisor/instructor together, to set learning targets and review learners' performance in the workplace. "Working with employers and assessment in the workplace is part of a lecturer's contact time in all cases" (King et al. n.d.:55). The advantage of assessment in the workplace is that it ensures that learners' learning has to take place in industry, but also the lecturers have to visit and assess. This is very new to Taiwan. The only impediment is that without an agreed standard it is made almost impossible. However, the Service model could be employed to alleviate the period without a standard in place (see Section 7.2).

Further looking into other disciplines' work placement model in the UK, after excluding the model used for medical profession and health care, an example of the work placement in Youth and Community in the UK was considered. The reason is because the medical and health profession is closely supervised due to the nature of the profession, but this is not required in the beauty sector.

The Youth and Community programme in the UK is to train the youth workers to help young people reach their potential in their personal and social development. According to an example of work placement in Youth and Community in the UK, the work placement has been divided into three levels within the three years of a degree course Table 7-1. Their work placement starts at an early stage of HE learning. The allocated workplace must be different at year 2 and year 3.

Years of HE	Levels of Professional Qualification	Hours
Year 1	Level 1	Minimum 40 hours paid or voluntary work
Year 2	Level 2	300 hours
Year 3	Level 3	300 hours

Table 7-1: Professional development in Youth and Community in the UK

At an informal interview with the programme leader of the Youth and Community Foundation Degree (UKEE-I), the relationship between learners, education and industry was drawn (see Figure 7-6). Learners will be assessed at the workplace by a visiting tutor and academic tutor. She highlighted the importance of learners being able to 'do' and 'write' about their experience of work placement. The similar viewpoint was only highlighted by one of the interviewees in Taiwan.

> *"Yeah, our students in the university, in fact, their final project all focused on styling, I actually think that higher level of education should focus on the ability of writing and speaking, not technical skills. It is out of focus…completely out of focus."* (EE14)

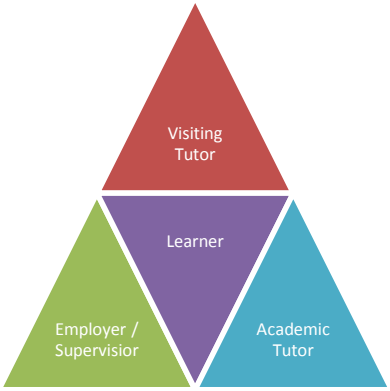


Figure 7-6: The relationship between the relevant stakeholders in the work placement model

Also, in the UK, an example of work-based learning model (see Figure 7-7) developed by the Open University (2006) shows a learner-centred learning structure to guarantee the learners' learning quality in work-based learning. There are three important roles: work-based facilitator and academic tutor working together with the monitor using on-line conference to control the quality of learning.

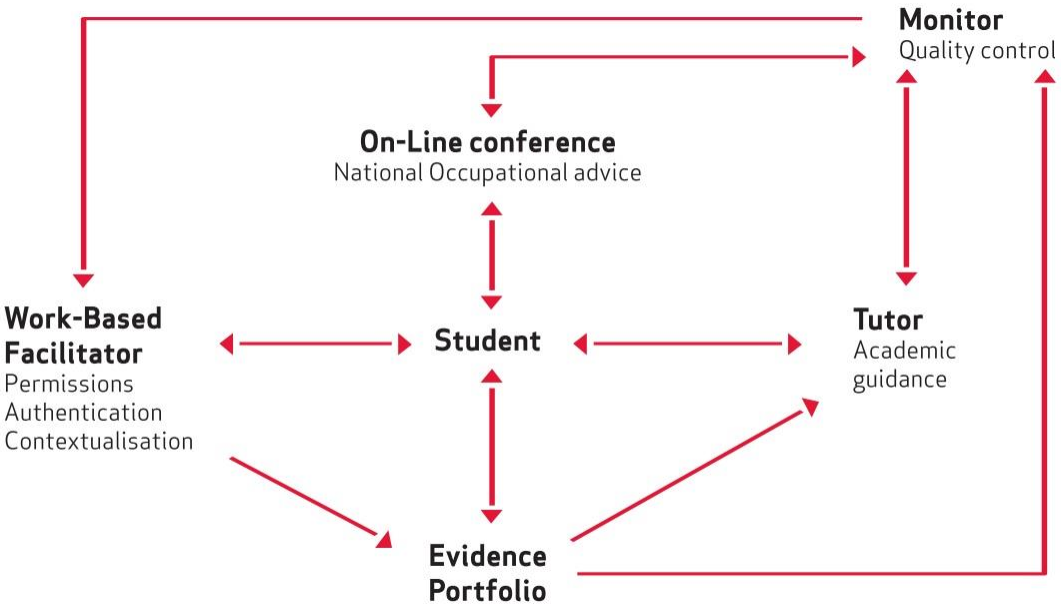


Figure 7-7: Low-level support model (The Open University 2006:9)

These examples show that learners are the centre of the work placement. In Taiwan, learners seem to be the centre, but it can be more precisely said that they are just a passive receiver. In Taiwan, the relationship between students, academic tutor and employers is that students need to submit a report at the end of the journey and employers will submit a score for their performance at the workplace. There is no facilitator, no assessor at the workplace (e.g. visiting tutor and academic tutor) and no monitor to assure the quality of learning at workplace.

However, it is important to note that a difference between Taiwan and the UK's situation is that the size of a class. In the UK, the class size is small, but in Taiwan each class has more than 50 learners. Only one tutor for each class could be overwhelming for the tutor. Therefore, the size of the class needs to be taken into consideration.

7.3.3 Proposed work placement model for Taiwan

According to the current structure of work placement in Taiwan, the education sector arranged work placement opportunities for learners. Regardless of which stakeholder/sector arranges work placements, the structure will not be affected. The proposed model is based on a healthy relationship between learners, lecturer and employer in the work placement scheme (Figure 7-8).

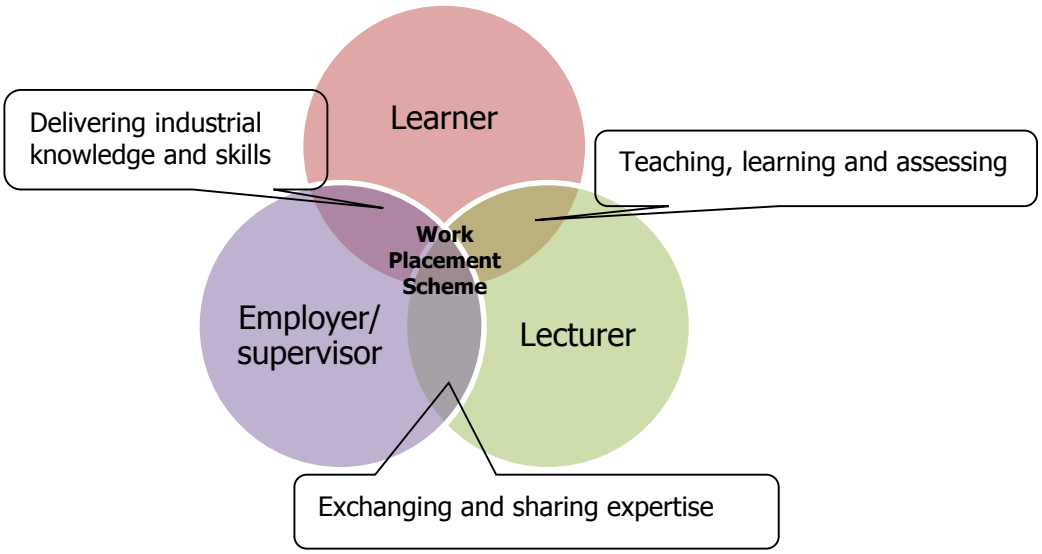


Figure 7-8: The relationship between learner, lecturer and employer/supervisor

By applying UK's features, identified through documentation analysis and auto-ethnography, a new work placement model was developed. In the initial work placement model, four stakeholders, namely education, industry, individuals/learners and organisation were important (even though there is no a proper impartial organisation established in Taiwan yet).

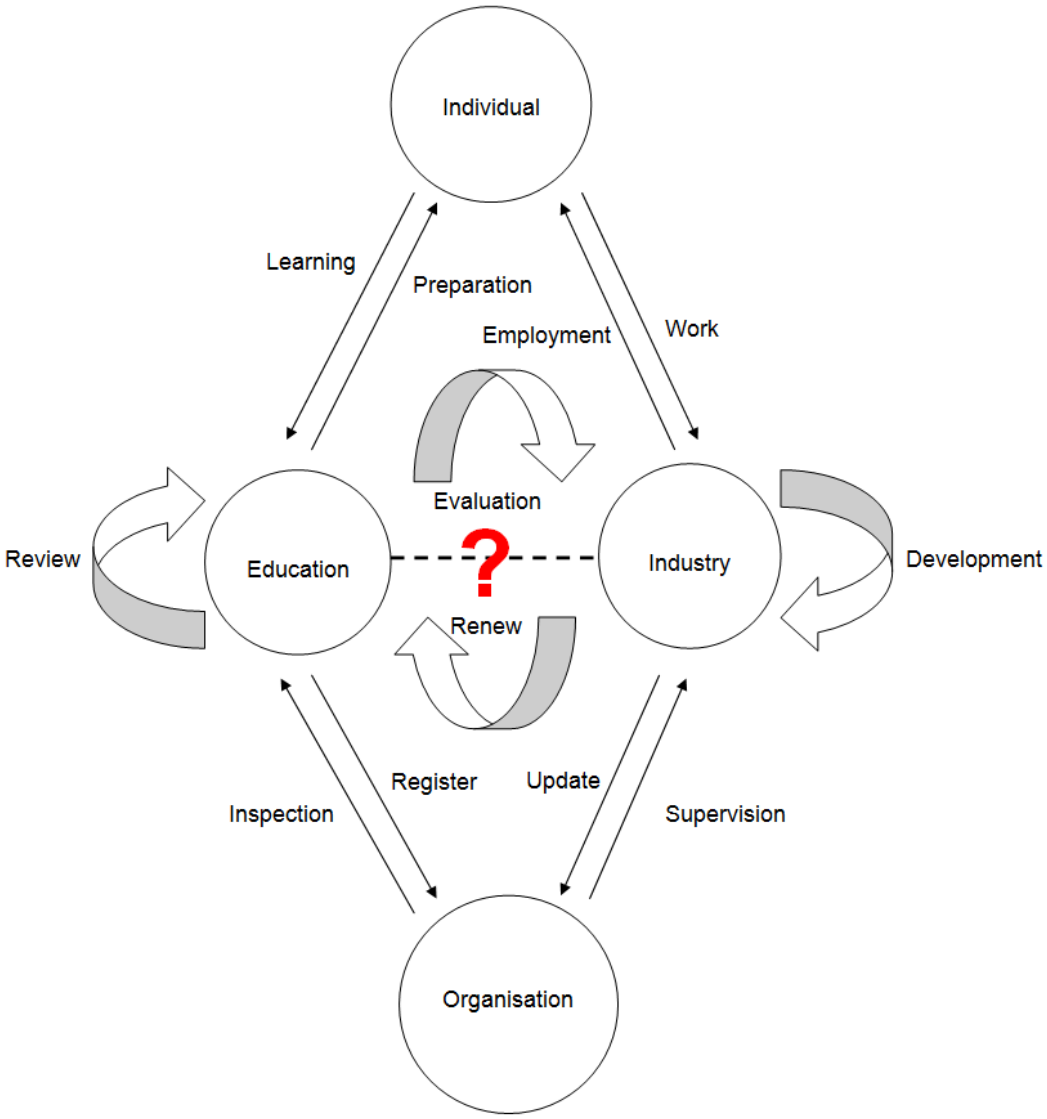


Figure 7-9: Proposed Work Placement model

The concept between education and industry is an on-going cycling from review, evaluation, development and renewal. This circulation will only occur based on unimpeded communication between the two sectors. The two sectors have different goals and approaches: they would require an intermediary to assist with the communication and to alleviate the differences and conflicts. In order not to have predetermined position, 'organisation' was initially established as indicating either government, governmental organisations or a professional body. Industrial needs should be constantly monitored and regularly updated

(Carroll & Boutall 2011). So the relationship between such an organisation, education and industry focuses on updating, supervision, registering and inspection.

In searching of the central joint component, the red question mark in Figure 7-9 was proposed as a co-ordinator or coordination unit in the structure of work placement model to assist in communication between education and industry due to the fact that there is no a GAIPB to provide a platform for both sectors to interact. This is a matter of an expedient measure to alleviate the current issue in Taiwan. Certainly, in Taiwan, there is a unit that is in charge of work placement in VET institutions: however, they are just a group of administrative staff who liaise with industry for the arrangement of work placements. They were criticised that they have none or very little understanding of the profession. In some institutions, the business of placements was taken over by the department. The matter of work placement should have a dedicated unit with staff who have industrial knowledge to coordinate between education and industry.

In this case, the proposed model will suggest the work placement scheme is distributed to the last three years of the Taiwanese degree course and gradually increase the hours of placement. The reason for starting at the second year is that learners come to the degree with very mixed backgrounds and a foundation of knowledge is required. Thus, the first year is an opportunity to familiarise with the field and the focus could be set on the general subjects relevant to the field, including relevant laws, regulations, hygiene, risk assessment and so forth. The placement hours are proposed as follows.

Year 1 is a freshman year and it is the year for preparing and aligning learners' competence to a similar standard. At Year 2, 40-60-hours work placement is first suggested as a probing activity to gain some industrial knowledge through shadowing and observing the industry. Whether learners shall assist the tasks

on-site or experience the role depends on the learners themselves, not the employer, but it is not encouraged and it is not compulsory. Each learner will be set a task with a free choice to observe one of the beauty related industries as a case study: moreover, if a class has 50 learners, 50 valuable case studies will be a database for the department and abundant sources for learners. Learners will be requested to present their findings and share their knowledge to others in the class. This could be a good opportunity for preparing their speaking skills. The data could be added to and updated by the following years' learners.

Years of HVET	Hours of work placement (approximately)	Methods of assessment
Year 1	0	-
Year 2	40-60	Observation/case study
Year 3	200-260	Practical assessment in workplace
Year 4	260-320	Practical assessment in workplace Portfolio

Table 7-2: Hours of work placement (proposed by the researcher)

By gaining more information from oneself and others' experience to identify what industry they would like to further experience, they choose the industry to be in. 200-260 hours is recommended for Year 3. Learners at this stage of work placement require some stability at the industry they choose, but it is also flexible to change.

Assessment in workplaces is required at this stage as learners start to involve the treatment service on-site. The targets must to meet the learning outcomes set for each academic year. Everybody's role and responsibility in the strategy will be clearly stated. Not only students' learning right at workplace is guaranteed, but also the target for three parties is clear.

In Year 4, the final year, 260-320 hours is proposed. At this stage, learners will be very much established and involved in the business on-site. Learners should be allocated a different category of industrial site because it would allow

learners to experience different lines of work: however, the necessity of re-allocation can be further discussed. Furthermore, their portfolio could be uploaded online as an e-portfolio, so industrial experts could go online and search for the talents they are looking for.

They will be assumed to perform practically like the practitioners on the job. Assessment in workplaces is also required, but the level of outcomes and assessment strategies is higher. This is the key year to shift themselves from the end point of graduation to the starting point of employment. This is a good opportunity for them to gain employment.

At this stage, learners' performance, reflection and the assessment will be recorded on the e-portfolio for a reference. The communication could be through e-portfolio, so that the industrial experts could judge if they can write. Learners' competences could be analysed via the e-portfolio. Through the stages of the work placement, the development must be seen.

Through this proposed model, not only will it allow learning and assessing to take place at the university and the workplace, but also knowledge sharing between education and industry. Techniques could still be delivered differently at university and the industry, but the structure of service would be the same if the Service model is introduced. It is also a good opportunity to apply theory into the practice: based on this, learners should utilise their research skills to discover new knowledge.

7.3.4 Testing of work placement model

Work placement model was tested by both educational and industrial experts at the second stage of interviews. This model has provoked feedback from interviewees because the work placement scheme is part of the beauty programme in Taiwan. The approach between HVET institutions is similar, but they are still slightly different from one another. There is only one institution that has implemented a role similar to co-ordinators, but the lecturers hold a

concurrent post as an employment pilot instructor for work placement, who is in charge of communicating with an industrial tutor, who represents all industries they co-operated with, according to the chairman of the department, EE09. However, the co-ordinator in their institution is only to support learners and co-ordinate with industry.

Interestingly, whenever the term 'professional body' was brought up in the interviews with Taiwanese experts, to indicate the organisation stated in the proposed model, the majority of interviewees were against involving the beauty associations. Clearly, the majority of beauty associations in Taiwan are associated with controversial business practice including providing training courses and selling products to learners/members for profit. Beauty associations bid for government funding to put on training courses for the National Occupational Licence. The associations are only vetted for financial viability, according to the interview with one of the senior government officers in the Council of Labour Affairs of Taiwan. This phenomenon led to people distrusting these organisations.

> "*Taiwanese beauty associations, unions and guilds lack integration with education, industry and legislations.*" (EE07)

> "*The majority of beauty associations are established for making profit, so they are not there to benefit their members…. Taiwanese government also consumes their annual budget to some large organisations for political reasons…*" (IE03)

The majority of interviewees considered the government should be responsible for establishing the co-ordination agency or allocating co-ordinator. Only few of them considered education sector should take the role. None of them agreed that industry should be involved as its controversial practice.

> *"No, I don't think that we can teaching, tutoring, applying funding projects and undertaking our own research project as well as taking the role of coordinator. You have no idea how busy we actually are. I think that hiring additional staff to do the job is more realistic."* (EE07)

"Do you know how much will it cost for a university to pay for one co-ordinator if each department required one?.... It's too expensive." (EE01)

All interviewees are very positive about the proposed model and some of them noted that they had never thought of structuring work placements in this way. The chairmen of department, such as EE01, EE04, EE09, EE11 and EE13, replied that they would be happy to implement it into the education sector if government could support with the funding to the private technological university.

"I think the idea is very good because learners' basic ability is prepared at Year 2, so it could be a start for them to have a preliminary contact with the industry. After the first contact with the industry, they will bring some problems back and it allows them to find the solutions. At Year 3, when they go back to industry, they could test the solutions, form discussions and write a report for their journey." (EE09)

"The idea in your proposed model is very good, but I am afraid to say that whether it is working all depending on the costs." (EE01)

"Of course it will help the communication between education and industry, but we don't have this in Taiwan…." (IE01)

Particular elements of the scheme received approval:

"*Setting targets…I think that this idea is great! We have never thought of it. We only asked learners whether they have gained something from this experience. We just asked the summary of their experience, but not the process."* (EE14)

EE01 commented that e-portfolios already existed to some degree:

"We have, we now have e-portfolio too! Now is that they have to go online to fill out which industry they have worked for and what they have done in their practice!" (EE01)

The relevant stakeholders currently involved in the work placement scheme are learners, academic tutors and employers. The ideal relationship between these three stakeholders in the work placement scheme should be as Figure 7-8 demonstrated. In Taiwan, employers, however, have not been required to instruct any industrial knowledge and techniques in workplaces. This might be a

good opportunity for industrial trainers/instructors to develop their instruction skills.

Employers/industrial supervisors may not be willing to participate if there is no incentive or a mutual goal or agreement between two sectors as they tend to refuse, using an excuse of business confidentiality. This issues were raised by some industrial experts such as IE10. She suggested that the work placement places should be categorised, so learners can only change to another category to avoid the leak of business confidentiality.

> *"A norm should be established, so you cannot allow a learner saying that I want to experience this brand's beauty counters today and tomorrow you want to change to another beauty counters…If the homogeneity is too high, our marketing strategy could be leaked out…. I think it may have this problem."* (IE10)

As EE01 said "*Government support is most important. The second is the support from the beauty industry.*" Thus, with the involvement of government and professional body, the resources could be integrated and utilised. Now, the problem is that industrial experts show little interest in the work placement scheme. Some of them such as IE04 and IE09 placed zero interest on how it works because they do not recruit employees through this process. Some of them do not require beauty qualifications and experience, so it is not an issue whether the work placement works. On the education side, they have shown interest in the possibilities of implementing into education although they have few concerns.

The main concerns interviewees have addressed include:

1. It is difficult to find a person who is competent and familiar with both education and industry.
2. Establishing an independent co-ordinator or co-ordination unit to be in charge of work placements could be costly. Without government

funding, it is very unlikely for a co-ordinator or co-ordination unit to be established in each department of the education sector.

3. Lecturers are too busy to take on two job roles and responsibilities. Lecturers do not even have enough time to prepare lessons, let alone to also hold a concurrent post as a visiting assessor to assess learners in workplaces.

In general, the comment from the work placement model is all very positive, but they brought out an important issue of 'funding', apart from the concern that this model would create more work for lecturers. Having a unit in charge of assessing learners at the workplace is a huge cost to the institutions. The argument here is that if the responsibility falls on lecturers, then it creates a great amount of work for lecturers. The key reason for lecturers to hold a concurrent post as a visiting assessor is to provide an opportunity for lecturers to go out and gain some industrial knowledge and picking up some of the latest techniques through assessing/observing learners. Assessing learners is a formal approach allowing them to go into industry without being rejected on the excuse of business confidentiality.

The proposal of this study is that there are currently too many lecturers and few learners due to the low birth rate in Taiwan. By employing more lecturers or giving higher salary or extra allowance, it will encourage them to also hold concurrent assessor and lecturer posts. Not only will they be able to be involved in learners' work placement, but also they could make up a deficiency of industrial knowledge and enhance their experience in this regard. It should be beneficial for lecturers.

Undoubtedly, both sectors have their own strengths and weakness: consequently, they need to find a way to complement each other and maximise the benefit of the resources through a third party. For instance, the education sector could provide the facility and educational resources for industrial

employees to have their CPD, as EE11 suggests that knowledge sharing needs to be mutual.

> *"Because they [industry professionals] are good at practical skill, but they did not know what to explain, and this is their weakness. In fact, they can return to study. If we can have such a channel, we can possibly interact with each other."* She continued and replied that: "*Yes, we have an evening class for advanced learners from the industry and the majority of the lecturers didn't want to teach the group as they feared to be challenged…They [the lecturers] should realise that they [industry professionals] think differently. They come back to study for something they are not good at. Am I right? Their weakness is professional theory and they don't know how to link the theory to practice, which is our strength."* (EE11)

An extra question raised is the competence required for the role as a co-ordinator. Interviewees have highlighted the core competences that the co-ordinator should possess (apart from one industry expert who refused to answer the question because she declined any collaboration with beauty institutions and one educational expert due to the time restriction). Their answers are tabled as follows:

	Coordinator's core competence		
EE01	Uderstand both sectors of academia and industry	Coordination	-
EE07	Uderstand both sectors of academia and industry	Empathy	Coordination
EE09	Enthusiastic/Passion	The ability of integration between education and industry	Understand the industry
EE10	Industrial knowledge	Passion for the field	Communication
EE11	Positivity	Acuity	Industrial knowledge
EE12	Understand the industry	Tutoring knowledge and ability	-
EE13	Dedicated	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Coordination
EE14	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Professional knowledge	Professional skills
EE15	-	-	-

Table 7-3: Core competences for a co-ordinator identified by educational experts

	Coordinator's core competence		
IE01	Communication and coordination skills	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Leadership
IE02	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Communication skill	-
IE03	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Passion	Coordination
IE04	-	-	-
IE05	Tutoring and counselling	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Positive
IE09	Understand the industry	Can do attitude	Communication
IE10	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Tutoring and counselling	-
IE11	Understand both sectors of academia and industry	Aesthetics	Positive
IE12	Understand the industry	Communication	Passion

Table 7-4: Core competences for a co-ordinator identified by industrial experts

From the table shown above, some experts were struggling to provide the third competence, so ' - ' was used to indicate the missing answer. Table 7-3 and Table 7-4 show that understanding both sectors of academia and industry is the main criterion for a co-ordinator, as this role has previously been conducted by a group of staff who have very little knowledge regarding the industry.

7.3.5 Modification of work placement model

The proposed model (see Figure 7-9) was modified after the testing at the second stage of interview to alleviate the issue of the cost of the co-ordinator. The change here is in using a standard to standardise the difference between education and industry instead of employing a co-ordinator to communicate.

The standard is embedded in the Service model. In other words, the modified model here is to integrate into the Service model for both education and industry into work placement model (see Figure 7-10). The Service model (see Figure 7-2) could be outlined as the first prototype of the NAOS[35] (see Section

[35] Nationally Agreed Occupational Standard (NAOS) – a tentative name for the study

6.5). An agreement between education and industry could be sought. All treatment services could be applied to six stages of service structure and be embodied in teaching, learning, assessing and practice. Thus, targets can be set for assessment at the workplace between learner, tutor and industrial trainer/instructor. The assessment could be carried out by the lecturer from the educational sector to ensure that the industrial sector provides targeted training to learners.

The role of visiting lecturers/assessors shown in the model is to leave each university a choice. The study here suggests using lecturers as visiting lecturers or they could employ part-time visiting lecturers to assess learners at workplaces. The argument is that employing additional staff to assess learners does not assist the problem in terms of the lecturers lacking industrial experience. The findings from auto-ethnographic experiences also suggest that the potential effectiveness of assessments carried out in workplaces could benefit both assessors and learners if the amount of paperwork can be reduced (see 5.2.2.1.1). Although the cost of assessor visits to workplaces can be burdensome, it constitutes an important interaction between education, individual learners and industry by which they share the responsibility to the workplace scheme. Not only will it help lecturers/assessors update their industrial knowledge through workplace assessment, but learners will also have set targets to achieve. The implication is that business confidentiality is no excuse for the industry not sharing its knowledge and skills.

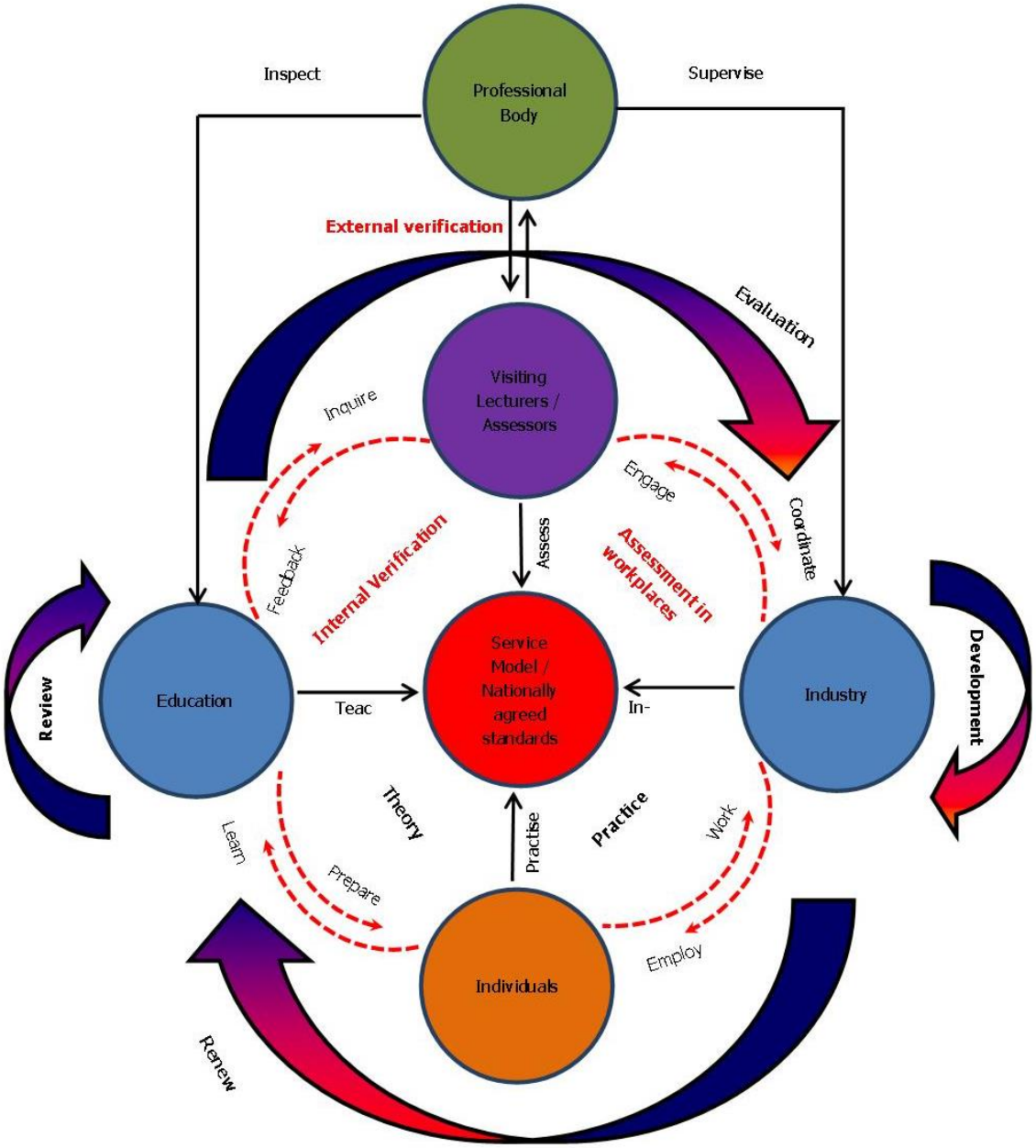


Figure 7-10: Modified Work Placement model

7.4 Proposed model three: Nurturing model

The Nurturing model is an expansion from the Service model and Work Placement model, further involving the role of the professional body and government (see Figure 7-11). This model demonstrates a holistic nurturing structure including all relevant stakeholders from government, professional

body to show a connection to education and industry. Individuals should be the centre of nurturing structure.

In broad terms, the government is driven by the industry's needs and facilitates the fulfilment of industrial needs through education. However, the professional body has the role of supervising industrial practice and inspecting educational performance (as shown in the work placement model). The industry also needs to update their requirements back to the professional body, so that the professional body would be able to have further investigations to determine whether it is an individual case or there is a tendency that requires an action. The relationship between the professional body and the education sector is that the professional body would validate programmes, possibly working in conjunction with the government's formal inspection process. Education would consult with the professional body not only for their proposed improvements, but also for updates from industry.

The Taiwanese government in these models is the stakeholder that has the least industrial knowledge and least involvement in the profession. Therefore, for the education sector, the government should consult with the professional body to update industrial information regarding competences required and shortages. This information will be driven by industry. However, small businesses like beauty have very limited prospects to convey their requirements to the government: hence, the professional body could have a research and development section to undertake market surveys regularly and report them to the government. In this case, the government will urge the education sector to prepare the competences the industry requires in advance.

The professional body addressed here is, however, recommended to be government appointed, with the authority delegated to assist government to establish relevant legislation, regulations and policies. Due to the distrust of multiple commercial professional associations in Taiwan (see Section 7.3.4), the government appointed professional body has to be an impartial and non-profit

organisation to assist government in managing beauty associations, private sectors and individual practitioners/professionals. For Taiwanese labour market tradition, in particular, by involving the government, this could avoid the current controversial practices and commercial activities (see Section 7.3.4).

The role of a professional body to industry is to supervise and monitor their practice to safeguard the customers' rights and safety. Also the professional body could provide a CPD structure and short courses, to enable the individual practitioner to develop their professional expertise to higher levels and be recognised for it. In addition, they could assist small businesses to diagnose their management and marketing issues and provide advice. To education, the professional body could assist the government to inspect the quality of teaching and learning to ensure the quality is maintained. In the UK, professional bodies also award vocational qualifications, which may not be feasible currently, but the possibility could be further explored. Taiwan currently does not have a government appointed impartial professional body: thus, more detailed recommendations for the functionality of a future establishment of a professional body can be seen in Section 8.2.6.2.

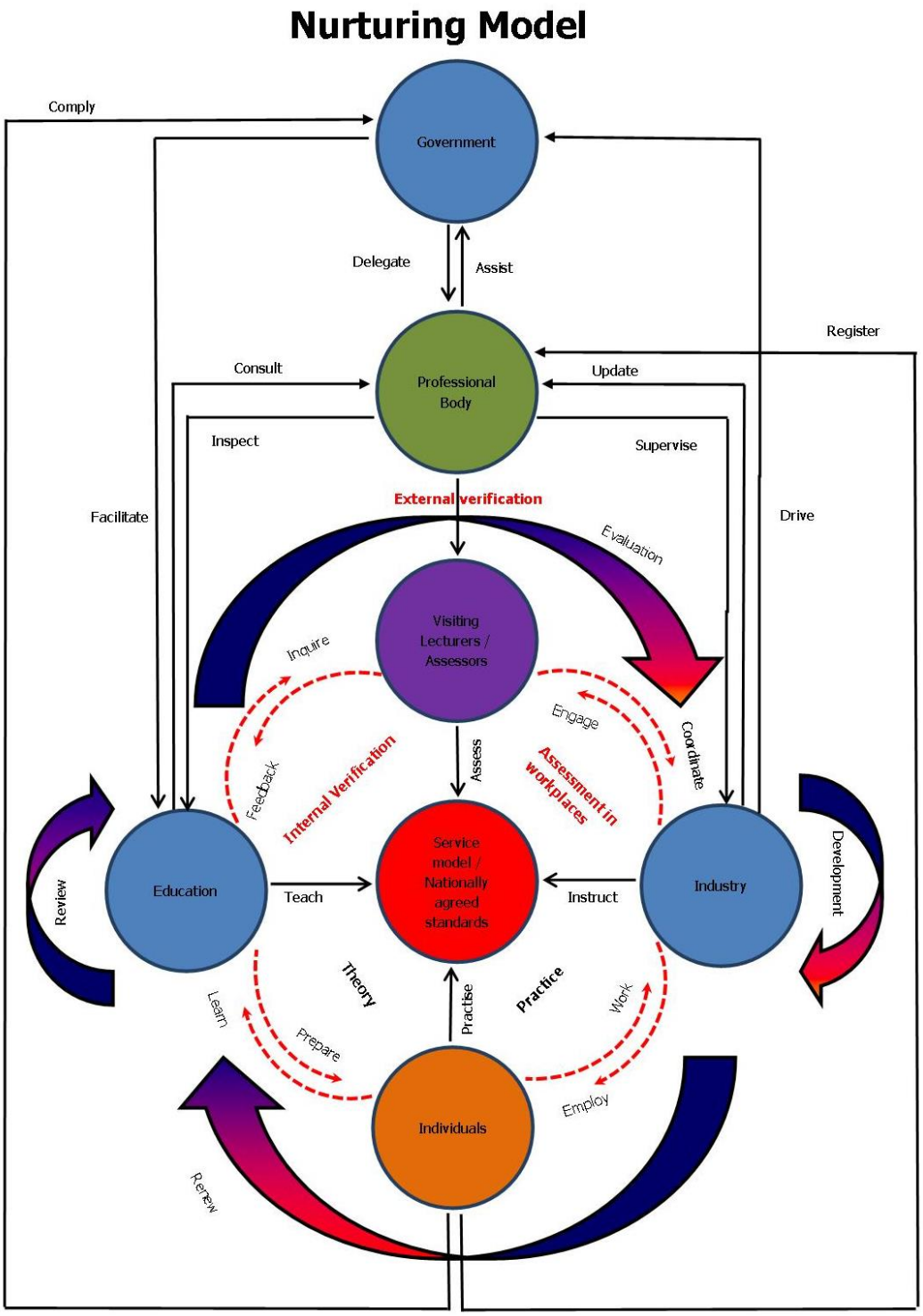


Figure 7-11: Nurturing model

7.5 The relationship between models

The purpose of developing theoretical models is to provide an effective strategy to improve the communication between relevant stakeholders and further to enhance beauty professional's competence. The relationship between service model, work placement model and nurturing model is as Figure 7-1 displayed in the beginning of the Chapter.

These models could function independently and also together as a one.

The Service model is developed from the UK's NOS and is further structured as a model. It is an example to show the importance of developing a NAOS and how it can be implemented into a service framework for education and industry to adopt. Once it is implemented into both sectors, what lecturers taught and students learned should be relatively similar to what industry requires. Assessment in workplaces could confirm that theory and practice are merged. With the authority and establishment of a professional body, the whole nurturing model completes its mechanism.

The Service model is to unify the service structure between education and industry based on a nationally agreed occupational standard, so learners could adapt the specialist knowledge and skills into the model based on the distinctiveness of the treatment. Once the service structure is unified and standardised, teaching, learning and assessment could take place in the workplace. With the Service model in the centre of the work placement, the learning would be more effective and structured. The side-benefit is that it gives the opportunity for lecturers to observe in industry alongside assessing learners. It also creates a platform for education and industry to share their knowledge and skills.

The relationship between two models is that they could work individually, but it would be beneficial when the two models are functioning together. In other words, implementing the Service model can steer the effect of the Work

Placement model to the maximum as the Service model could be viewed as a core to the Work Placement model. This concept could effectively bring education and industry working closely together. Certainly, this has to be under a clear guideline to all involved stakeholders and the targets have to be set, based on learning outcomes for individual learners to achieve.

The Nurturing model brings out the role of government and the professional body to enforce the training structure. The government's policies and strategies could effectively improve its mechanism under the professional body's assistance. The professional body has played an important role here to moderate and co-ordinate between all relevant stakeholders.

7.6 Summary of Chapter 7

The Work Placement model is an important part of the nurturing system, as it not only provides the opportunity for students to gain real world work experience within their learning journey, but also for involved stakeholders to have the opportunity to communicate and interact through assessment in workplaces. More importantly, ensuring learners' right to learn at the workplace during work placements is essential.

Key to the success of the Work Placement model is acceptance by educators and employers to recognise that the Service model is the one to unify education and industry. In other words, if the Service model could be implemented into teaching and learning in the education and training partnered with industry, the assessment, based on the framework of the Service model, could be carried out on the similar structure. The Work Placement model could be maximised in this case. From the interview data, the communication between education and industry was ineffective (see Section 5.3.3.1.2). The main reason is that learners were left at the workplace without targets to achieve, so the quality of work placement relies on the employers.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the aims and objectives in the light of the research results. The objectives will be scrutinised sequentially in order to determine whether the overall aims have been achieved. The following section discusses the implications of the findings and the research's limitations, and makes recommendations for all relevant stakeholders that will further benefit the sector with regard to research and development.

8.2 Review of the research aim and objectives

8.2.1 Evaluation of overall aim

The overall aim of this research was, "to analyse the beauty sector in Taiwan, with comparative research on the UK, to identify the underlying issues and construct a model for the development of nurturing competence."

The aim was realised through the following objectives:

- To analyse the UK beauty education sector in order to identify any effective and practical means of enhancing the nurturing structure by which Taiwanese beauty professionals are developed.
- To review the Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure in order to identify relevant issues.
- To identify the competences expected and required at the graduate level, by education and industry, in order to fulfil a beauty professional's role in Taiwan.
- To propose a model that could improve beauty professionals' competences within the nurturing structure.

- To make recommendations for the development and improvement of the Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure.

These objectives and the research processes were focused by the research questions:

Question 1: What features characterise the UK's approach to the effective training of beauty professionals?

Question 2: What fundamental flaws cause the gap between education and industry in Taiwan's training system for beauty professionals?

Question 3: What competences are HE beauty graduates in Taiwan expected to possess at graduation? Are there any differences between educational expectations and industrial requirements?

Question 4: What features of the UK's approach to training and development for beauty professionals could be particularly effective for bridging the gap between beauty education and the industry in Taiwan?

Question 5: What elements should constitute a model of seamless integration between the Taiwanese educational and industrial sectors for enhancing beauty professionals' competence?

The key features identified from the UK's training approach could effectively and practically alleviate the fundamental flaws underlying in Taiwan's. Hence, the overall aim has been met, as a holistic structure has been developed to define how all relevant stakeholders shall work together as a team.

8.2.2 The UK's and Taiwan's nurturing approaches for beauty professionals

The first objective of this research is to "analyse the UK beauty education sector in order to identify any effective and practical means of enhancing the nurturing structure by which Taiwanese beauty professionals are developed."

This study's findings suggest that the National Occupational Standards (NOS), the establishment of professional bodies and the Quality Assurance (QA) process, particularly for the assessment structure, were identified as aspects of the UK's nurturing approach for beauty professionals from which Taiwan might benefit, as these key features are absent from Taiwan's training structure.

The existence of the NOS allows differences in teaching style and programme emphasis to be aligned to an independent standard and developed accordingly. The standards are agreed between the relevant stakeholders. They are used to develop training programmes both in education and industry, to assess learners in the setting of the classroom and workplaces, to verify assessment quality internally and externally. They are reviewed regularly, modified by steering groups and recognised by both education and industry. The NOS gives a detailed, specialist sector application of competence standards, while the QCF or RQF gives broader standards relevant to all occupational and academic qualifications. Aspects of both could be combined in the recommendation for a NAOS developed for specific sectors in Taiwan. Based on the same standard, teaching, learning, assessing and practising could be practically achieved.

The investigation of the UK's nurturing approach has shown that professional bodies are the most important organisations that help set and audit standards and maintain them through the QA process. More importantly, professional bodies provide a platform through which all relevant stakeholders can communicate and interact. The findings suggest that a necessity for establishing one professional body is recommended for Taiwan: too many professional bodies in the UK were considered to be problematic. Thus, part of the reasons leading to this conclusion is that the Taiwanese government has very limited understanding of the industry: hence, the government needs a trusted professional organisation to consult with. In addition, the identification of competences could be reviewed and updated regularly through professional

body's assistance. It would also have a significant role in the external validation of programmes as part of the QA process.

By incorporating these features into Taiwan's nurturing system, the standard would be a guideline by which beauty professionals could develop their competence and ensure that the standard is maintained through the QA process. The purpose of establishing a professional body is not only to set standards and verify practices, but also to provide a platform for effective communication and interaction with both education and industry and enabling beauty professionals to achieve, maintain and update professional competence.

Overall, three features - NOS, an authorised professional body and QA - are missing from Taiwan's nurturing system. An implication of implementing these features into Taiwan's nurturing structure is that not only will these provide a platform for professionals and sectors to interact and communicate, but also to ensure the standard and quality is retained. The relevant stakeholders should be proactively involved in the nurturing system as every member of this sector has different responsibility toward the profession.

8.2.3 Taiwan's nurturing approach for beauty professionals

Objective Two is to "review the Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure in order to identify relevant issues."

The Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure was reviewed in the light of the UK's auto-ethnographic experiences. The latest literature emphasises the severe impact of the mismatch between education and industry on the unemployment rate and national economic development (see Section 1.2). The problems initially identified by the literature review were confirmed by the findings from the primary data. The fundamental defects of Taiwan's training system for beauty professionals can be generally characterised as a fragmented training system and insufficient integration of resources and approaches.

The relevant stakeholders in Taiwan's training system are government, education, industry and individuals. In regard to the aforementioned mismatch and ineffective communication, this implies that the relevant stakeholders are not all functioning as a team. The present study exposes the reasons for the fragmented nature of the training structure. One is that the government must take partial responsibility for the failure of vocational beauty education, due to the focus on short projects rather than a broader vision and strategy for the sector. Another issue is that it is questionable whether the industry can actually name the competences they need. This is not an excuse for the education sector, but to note that the education sector is only part of the training structure, not all of it.

A significant finding to emerge from this study is that one of the reasons causing the mismatch between education and industry is ineffective communication or mis-communication. Furthermore, a platform for both sectors to communicate and all relevant stakeholders to interact is clearly lacking.

The key aspects of the fundamental issues can be listed as follows:

Firstly, the study finds that the Taiwanese government has a very limited understanding of the industry. The government communicates with the education sector through funding schemes and tries to enforce intra-sector collaboration without appropriate policies and regulations. The Taiwanese government has not taken an effective control of the consequence of deregulation of education and upgrading of colleges to technological universities, according to the changes in Taiwanese demography and industrial trend. The funding schemes appear to be short-term strategies that are not effectively measured, evaluated and improved. Document analysis and interviews show that, although the Academia-Industrial collaborative projects were promoted by the government, the evidence shows that they appear not only ineffective, but also to lack long-term planning and vision.

Secondly, VET is undoubtedly a vital part of the nurturing structure. The VET sector must not only respond to government policies and schemes, but must also develop its financial sources from the recruitment and retention of students. These pressures result in large classes and limited support services for students. For various reasons, VET's functions are currently challenged. Taiwan's educational qualification structure is inflexible and lacks developmental levels: the lack of differentiation in the beauty curriculum between FE and HVET de-motivates the talents and the bulky qualification structure does not allow learners to flexibly transfer and plan their career. According to the recent literature, the end result is a mismatch between education and industry.

The education sector naturally appears liable as the criticism is that lecturers lack industrial experience, so they cannot deliver what industry wants. The reason for this could be possibly explained in various dimensions according to the findings. First of all, in Taiwan, academic achievement is an important criterion for being a lecturer in university. Secondly, full-time lecturers are not encouraged to be involved in any part-time business affairs. Thirdly, lecturers have very limited time to develop their professional competence alongside their tutoring, teaching, administrative affairs and academic research. Also, one of the findings is that the Taiwanese government's Occupational License System (OLS) is defective and outdated. Clearly, the educational sector was aware of it, but it was strongly promoted in the educational system and was allowed to distort the curriculum. Last but not least, they have taken a laid-back approach to these issues, whether because of inability to change the system or just disinterest in gaining industrial experiences.

Thirdly, the government does not diagnose the fundamental causes; rather, it expects that industry is the answer. This is why it promotes a series of Academia-Industry collaborative projects. The bureaucratic and formal style of these projects does not suit industrial engagement. The projects are education-led and the success of the collaboration undermined by the way in which it is

structured and funded: and the result of this study shows that the communication between education and industry is ineffective, with widely diverging perspectives of the two stakeholders (see Section 5.3.3.1.2). Furthermore, only a limited amount of impartial evaluation of these projects could be found.

On the whole, a lack of effective resource integration between education and industry, and the resulting ineffective communication and the failure of some schemes, leads to another shortcoming. Intensive undergraduate training in the final year (i.e. The Last Mile) only benefits some more able learners: short-term industrial input might have an immediate effect, but will be rendered ineffective by its fragmented nature (see Section 5.3.1.2). Various collaborative projects should enable experts in both sectors to engage in dialogue by such means as meeting and sharing knowledge, but it seems that the failure to engage with their opposite numbers has produced a structure that is a mere formality.

Even the Taiwanese government and educational experts regard industry as the potential answer to filling the gap between education and industry. However, the research suggests a decided negative to this as the answer. Pre-job or on-the-job training in industry are the most common professional development strategies, and tend to be task-specific. The reason for it is that trainers tend to be senior staff or managers, especially in small businesses. The scope of the industrial training is too narrowly specific. Vocational education and industrial training have different values and purposes. The result of this study indicates that the education sector should utilise their strengths not only to meet industrial current needs, but also to develop competences based on a wider vision and research, producing innovative graduates who will create more demand for the industry: not be only led by the industry because industrial trends, in the beauty sector in particular, are short and fast. While they can complement each other's strengths and weaknesses, one cannot replace the

other. But the educational sector has not diagnosed the fundamental causes of this mismatch and reviewed its role and function within the training system.

Next, the evidence from this study suggests that the industrial sector showed little interest in engaging in the collaborative projects and lacks a sense of social responsibility towards the nurturing of talent, the responsibility for which is clearly regarded as devolving on the education sector. Education experts have highlighted the challenges involved in obtaining work placement opportunities. More importantly, such opportunities do not necessarily meet learners' expectations, thereby affecting their attitudes towards work placement and may cause them to lose interest. The creation of opportunities for learner involvement allows them to obtain real-world experience and increase their interest in the field. It is necessary that the industry should revisit their relationship with education.

Last but not least, individuals should be at the heart of the training system. The evidence demonstrates that individuals are dissatisfied with the beauty training system, but they seem to accept the current state rather than take action. An implication of this is the possibility that individuals have been participating in this disintegrated training system but have overlooked their right to strive for a healthy functioning training system.

Multiple data sources and triangulation of research methods reveal that individuals, including beauty educators, professionals, practitioners and students, are ignorant of their very ignorance. The most unexpected finding from the interviews is that professionals and practitioners are confident in their perception of the sector. The present study using the UK as a lens shows that they are not even aware of their options. This study is to raise that awareness of the fundamental issues and the options for addressing the problems.

8.2.4 Comparison of the difference in competence and performance

Objective three is to "identify the competences expected and required at the graduate level, by education and industry, in order to fulfil a beauty professional's role in Taiwan"

This objective is intended to determine whether there is a difference between education and industry in terms of competence. The level of competence expected by education experts from HVET beauty graduates is very similar to that required by industrial experts; there is only the slight difference in order. Work ethics, honesty/integrity and team-working were equally ranked as the most important from industrial experts, while educational experts ranked sequentially the importance of work ethics, commitment, dependability /responsibility and passion for the work. The present study finds that both sectors' experts consistently rated 'work ethics' the most important, and 'decisiveness' and 'bi-multi-lingual skill' the least important.

The result also indicates that the industrial requirements for HVE beauty graduates are higher than those for FE graduates, but that there is not much difference between FE and HVET graduates' performances. The FE and HVET beauty graduates' performance were compared by the industrial experts and according to them there was not much difference between them. However, the industrial experts expect HVET graduates to have a superior performance to FE graduates. This result proves that the lack in levels of development does weaken HVET graduates' competitive advantage and undermine the advantage of higher education.

The skills, knowledge and attributes required for competence were listed and divided into three categories: skills, knowledge and attributes. However, the result suggests that the most important criteria are in the category of

attributes, but these components seem not to have been implemented in the sphere of education.

8.2.5 Proposed models

The fourth objective is to "propose a model that could improve beauty professionals' competences within the nurturing structure."

Three models have been developed, that could function individually or/and work together holistically. These are the Service, Work Placement and Nurturing models. In order to enhance the nurturing structure holistically, these three models were developed in relation to each other's functionalities.

The Service model is the core of the Work Placement and Nurturing models. It was developed to standardise the service structure across educational teaching and learning, as well as assessment and practice in the industry. Before the establishment of the NAOS, the Service model could be first implemented as a framework for education and industry. Based on the same framework, academic input and industrial practice can be gradually synchronised. This will establish a foundation for the future establishment and development of NAOS.

Once the Service model is implemented as a framework, the effect of the Work Placement model would be maximised. The Work Placement model is proposed for work placements to ensure that relevant learning takes place within the work placements and to allow workplace assessments to be conducted. Without the implementation of the Service model, the Work Placement can still function but without assessment at the workplace. However, learning targets can still be set for learners and industry as a guideline.

The Nurturing model combines professional bodies and government in order to form a holistic training structure. The Nurturing model is an expansion of the Service and Work Placement model, which encompasses all practitioners /professionals for their career development. The significance of these models will be highlighted in Section 8.2.8, 8.2.9 and 8.2.10.

8.2.6 Recommendations

The final objective is to "make recommendations for the development and improvement of the Taiwanese beauty nurturing structure."

Detailed recommendations for the operation of the Service, Work Placement and Nurturing models, as well as the correlation between them, are given in the Model Development Chapter (see Chapter 7). It is essential for all stakeholders including government, professional bodies, education, industry and individuals to manage the nurturing system holistically together. The following sections make broad recommendations for the various stakeholders regarding the application of the roles defined in the models and research findings.

8.2.6.1 Recommendations for the Taiwanese government and policymakers

The present study specifies some strategies to help the Taiwanese government address the fundamental issues identified.

1. It is important for the government act as a facilitator, not a driver, when its understanding of the industry and the profession is limited.
2. There is an urgent need for setting a Nationally Agreed Occupational Standard (NAOS) with the assistance of professional bodies. This NAOS must be discussed and agreed by both education and industry.
3. There is a need to establish a Government-Appointed Impartial Professional Body (GAIPB) to help the government establish a standard and tailor legislation and regulations to the beauty industry. The government should delegate to and supervise the GAIPB. The structure and management of the GAIPB should be independent, transparent and impartial and stand government and third party scrutiny.

4. Any policies relevant to vocational education, industry strategies, regulations and collaborative schemes in conjunction with professional development should be drawn up in consultation with the professional body.

5. The structure of vocational qualification should be simplified into clear levels of development in relation to the proposed NAOS and its standard levels. This will allow individuals to progress and transfer their learning journey flexibly from FE to HVET or from education to industry. Also, qualification levels should be also integrated into professional development, allowing the professional body to validate each developmental stage of development status.

6. The Occupational License System (OLS) should be reviewed and transformed under the guidance of the GAIPB. Moreover, the OLS should be delegated to the professional body and its development integrated into levels of qualification and professional validation. Obtaining a license should be symbolised as verifying professional status. Based on this, wage bands could be recommended according to the professional level.

8.2.6.2 Recommendations for future establishment of a government appointed impartial professional body (GAIPB)

The importance of establishing a GAIPB (a tentative name) is one of the significant findings in the study. The function of the professional body should be to provide a platform for education and industry to share knowledge and skills and interact with each other. There are conditions for establishing a GAIPB as a premise:

1. There will be only **one** 'government appointed' professional body to be established to coordinate between governmental and professional sectors. Any other professional associations, private sector training bodies and organisations will be under the supervision of the GAIPB.

2. The position of the GAIPB must be impartial for all relevant stakeholders.
3. The professional body is an organisation composed of individual practitioners and professionals involved in the sector's professional education and business spheres.
4. The GAIPB will establish a code of practice for themselves and their members.

It is recommended that the functions of the GAIPB be as follows:

1. Registration

Registration for practice should be compulsory. The purpose of registration is to allow the professional body and the government to quantify the number of people in practice. Not only will it be a database, but their practices could be monitored. It is essential to regulate health and safety and hygienic practice, to enforce legislative compliance and verify professional status. Furthermore, once registered for practice, insurance policies must be enforced.

2. Assistance

The GAIPB should provide guidance and support to assist the government set a NAOS. The professional body should gather the relevant stakeholders to review the NAOS and define the competences required. The defined competences will be developed into levels of competence standards for developing training programmes both in education and industry for different levels of professional development and CPD courses. Additionally, its industrial knowledge should inform the government’s establishment of appropriate legislation and regulations.

3. Inspection

The GAIPB should help the government inspect the vocational education sector to verify its standards. Inspections could verify whether standards are maintained and assure the quality of teaching, learning and assessment.

4. Supervision

The GAIPB can supervise and monitor individuals and business practices in order to ensure the absence of illegal practices. It should be able to sanction such conduct.

5. Validation

The GAIPB should validate a professional's status. A transformed OLS could be used to map against levels of competence standard for measuring and verifying professional status. The levels of qualification and years of work experience should be part of the criteria and taken into account for the validation process. In addition, further assessment/observation by qualified examiners assigned from the professional body should be required. The premise is that OLS has to be updated to meet the current industrial practice and even beyond.

Furthermore, the levels of skill formation could be applied to distinguish the status of professional development. For instance, basic level (labourer), intermediate level (craftsman), advance level (technician), professional level (expert) and mastery level (master). Establishment of the criteria and approaches would allow the practitioners to plan their career development according to their pace and validate their professional status at an individual level. There is, therefore, a definite need for the GAIPB to establish a system to measure competence levels, verify practices and validate professional status. For example, this could be undertaken every five to ten years depending on competence levels, to ensure that professionals' practices are both current and relevant.

Additionally, validation at the organisation level of professional programmes through the QA process, in conjunction with other external examination institutions, should be established as a key function of the body.

6. Platform

The GAIPB should provide a platform for professional members from all stakeholders to communicate and to exchange knowledge and skills. This platform should aim to communicate differences and enable interaction with each other for a united purpose.

This platform will enable review and development of the NAOS, as well as other infrastructure such as having an e-portfolio system as a digital platform.

7. Offer short training courses and CPD

The GAIPB should offer informal training courses for beginners who would like to study or enter the beauty sector without a previous relevant educational background or industrial experience. This could minimise the negative effects of classes containing students with varied educational backgrounds. The body could also offer CPD for practitioners and professionals to update their skills and knowledge at various stages. Technical advice for practitioners and professionals, and career development for individual practitioners, should be part of the offering.

8. Advice

The GAIPB could not only provide technical advice, but also help individuals obtain jobs through job search support and networking, as well as retain employment by the assistance of identifying individuals' needs for CPD. It could also advise individuals and small business on such matters as business management, lawful consultation and health and safety.

9. Research and Development

Research and Development is one of such a body's most important functions. Its members have a responsibility to contribute their knowledge to the body and the sector. The body will regularly carry out surveys and market research and work closely with all relevant stakeholders to identify potential skills needs, shortages, supply, demand and requirements. With all manner of resources, research is important to continue the sector's development. The research outcomes could be used to orient its and government policymaking, for refreshing the educational curriculum, for developing industrial strategy and for building individual careers. More importantly, the body itself should contribute meaningfully to the sector and wider society.

8.2.6.3 Recommendations for the Taiwanese vocational education sector

1. This sector should not only respond promptly to industrial trends but should in fact exceed industry's expectations. Not only should the sector use its strength in research and development to forecast needs, but also create industrial demand for its graduates.
2. The beauty curriculum should be closely linked to the identified competences, integrating these into teaching and learning outcomes, which should relate to the levels defined for the NAOS. All subjects/modules should be delivered linking to specialist areas of knowledge and practice.
3. This sector should employ the Service model as a framework for teaching and learning. Based on the model, the relevant knowledge, skills and attributes can be delivered and demonstrated in the treatment service. This allows learners to apply theoretical knowledge to practical situations through a comprehensive service structure.

4. The sector should also employ the Work Placement model to ensure that learning takes place at workplaces, which would encourage an equal input from industry. This would also allow lecturers to update their industrial knowledge by observing and assessing learners' performance at workplaces.
5. Vocational education should collaborate effectively with industry by sharing knowledge through CPD. Both sectors should form a positive relationship to complement each other's weaknesses and enhance each other's strengths to create mutually beneficial situations.
6. The sector should work effectively with the professional body. The professional body would inspect the education sector to ensure that the standard is maintained and quality of assessment is assured. Meanwhile, the education sector could consult with the professional body regarding the standard, industrial trends and the direction of curriculum design. In addition, academic staff should proactively collaborate with professional body and be part of research & development groups with the professional body.
7. Collaborate with the professional body and industry to utilise e-portfolio as a digital platform to communicate with learners and industry.
8. Encourage lecturers to take on the role of visiting lecturer/assessor to engage with the assessment at workplaces in order to update industrial knowledge and practice.
9. Reduce the size of classes to be able to differentiate the learning needs for different pace of learners or increase the members of teaching staff to provide more support for learners' needs. Additionally, provide support for lecturers and assessors to enhance/improve their professional practice.
10. Ensure that relevant legislation and regulations related to practitioners, such as health & safety and hygiene, should be divided into levels of depth and embedded into the curriculum for each level of learners. More importantly,

they should be delivered, embodied and demonstrated in teaching, learning and assessment.

8.2.6.4 Recommendations for the Taiwanese beauty industry

1. The industry should actively collaborate with the education sector to enhance each other's strengths by sharing resources, facilities and knowledge and complement each other's weaknesses in the application of theory and practice.
2. The industry should be proactively updating their needs to the government through the professional body and supporting the market research conducted by the professional body to allow the skill gaps/shortages to be identified in advance. This will assist industry not only to actively fill skill gaps internally through CPD, but also to fill the skill shortages externally through the long-term collaboration with education sector.
3. The beauty industry could consider implementing the Service model to assure the quality of its service, even before the NAOS is established. The model only provides a framework for treatments and any distinctive features could be preserved. It can be adopted by individual businesses prior to wider structural implementation.
4. The industry should participate more proactively in the work placement scheme of nurturing talent in co-operation with the education sector, as this presents a good opportunity for developing professional competence in instruction and provides a way of contributing to the community, which could reinforce social stability.
5. Introduce information technology to the premises, to allow e-training to be implemented in industry to advance their training opportunities. Also, motivate employees with rewards to continuously upgrade their levels of competence and professional status, verified by the professional body.

6. For individual businesses, it is recommended that they work closely with the professional body to update their professional knowledge and skills through CPD; maintain awareness of the latest trends through attending seminars/ conferences/ exhibitions; validate the professional status of their employees through the professional body's verification process; and seek for lawful advice on insurance, regulations, technical issues and so forth.
7. The establishment of a corporate image, culture and values for particular businesses is recommended, regardless of whether they are large organisations or individual businesses. This would not only reduce staff turnover, but would also motivate employees.
8. Ensure that both parties of employer and employees are fully aware of the relevant legislation and regulations regarding their own and customers' rights and that they meet the health & safety and industrial hygienic working practice regulations.

8.2.6.5 Recommendations for Taiwanese beauty practitioners and professionals

1. It is important for individuals to be aware of the changes in the profession and to be able to adapt to those changes. They are advised to constantly update their competence and even prepare for future demand.
2. It is essential that individuals can identify their own learning needs, update their competences and proactively develop their career. They would use CPD from the professional body to achieve higher levels of skill certificates or higher membership levels, which would enable them to bridge any career gaps.
3. In order to prepare for future demand, beauty practitioners/professionals should improve their English, which will give them the ability to access first-hand research sources in connection with the subject of beauty. They should not be ignorant of their ignorance.

4. As Lester (1999b) suggests, professionals should not passively accept the conventional practice that is developed by others, but should move beyond existing competences and actively create new ones.

8.2.7 Contribution of the thesis to various aspects of the Taiwanese beauty sector

This research has focused on Taiwan's problems rather than those of the UK. There is currently no other study in Taiwan that uses auto-ethnography to develop an in-depth understanding of another country's nurturing system for the beauty sector. This approach is quite time-consuming, but these findings enhance the researcher's understanding of the UK's nurturing system. The auto-ethnographic experience was triangulated using two measurements. One was the three auto-ethnographic roles of learner, practitioner and lecturer/assessor, the other involved triangulating literature reviews and document analyses. The lens comparison between the UK and Taiwan was based on the researcher's previous auto-ethnographic experiences in these roles.

The competences identified in this study could be a reference point for establishing an NAOS. Further, the proposed concept of NAOS could be developed for different levels according to industrial requirements or beyond, which would help the education sector develop curricula. This study may not be able to answer all the problems inherent in the Taiwanese training system for beauty professionals, as it would take years for such reforms to be developed. As it takes time to establish a proper system, aspects of the proposed models could be implemented in a more staged, gradual manner. It would effectively narrow the gap if all stakeholders were willing to apply the Service model to teaching, learning, assessment and practice. The proposed models are adaptable and transferable, and allow the application of creativity and individuality according to institutional feature, industrial purpose and individual

application. However, this study will at least serve as a basis for future work and a reference for other vocational disciplines.

8.2.8 The significance of the Service model

The significance of the Service model is that it can provide a framework for all existing treatments and allow the adoption of new ones. Regardless of what these might be, the context at each stage of the treatment can be developed according to the model's process logic. This service framework is Procedural, Logical, Adaptable and Transferrable (PLAT)[36].

Procedural

The procedure is clear and well-structured. The sequence from preparation to evaluation and reflection may be repeated but not changed.

Logical

Because it is procedural, there must be a logic to the process relating to a treatment. As mentioned above, the process is not changeable, but extra steps can be inserted when necessary as long as these are logically valid.

Adaptable

The service model can be adapted to any type of treatment service. Even for a new treatment, the content can be changed but the structure will remain comparatively the same.

Transferrable

It is transferrable: regardless of where learners have studied or practitioners worked, the framework would remain consistent. The only difference might be

[36] This concept with its acronym has been developed by the researcher.

the addition of individual and organisational features. However, before these are added, the quality is assured.

This model uses a conceptualised approach to construct a common structure that facilitates communication between education and industry. Once a NAOS has been established, the professional body will regularly carry out standardisation procedures to align the differences between education and industry. The Service model will allow assessment to be conducted in workplaces according to the established NAOS and the principles of standardisation. The service model does standardise the procedure but not the style – i.e. those unique features that can be added to the service content.

8.2.9 The significance of the Work Placement model

This new Work Placement model has been developed to solve the fundamental problem inherent in the lack of clear guidelines for work placements for both employers and learners. Based on the assumption that the Service model is agreed by both education and industry, the performance criteria are embedded in the Service model. In other words, by clearly stating the learning outcomes, employers are aware of what to teach and learners of what to learn to ensure that they can carry out the entire service procedure.

Setting learning targets ensure that learning takes place in workplaces, and motivates lecturers and assessors to inspect and assess learners in those environments. This allows lecturers to update their industrial knowledge and practice through observation and assessment, and impels industrial trainers, instructors and supervisors to equal the former's input. In these circumstances, trainers can develop their teaching abilities, thereby benefiting learners, educators and employers alike.

8.2.10 The significance of the Nurturing model

The Nurturing model embodies an interrelationship between all relevant stakeholders in the training structure. The incorporation of the professional

body and the government in a monitoring and moderating mechanism to enforce industrial, educational and individual practice is an important part of a complete training structure.

Because the relevant policies and strategies could affect the structure and development of education and industry, the establishment of a professional body could help the government formulate relevant policies, strategies and regulations relevant to the profession. The broad structure of this Nurturing model could also be significant for other domains.

8.3 Limitations of the study

A number of limitations must be determined differently for Taiwan and the UK.

Firstly, secondary subject research was limited because there are only a small number of studies regarding beauty professionals and their professional development, especially ones conducted by beauty practitioners or professionals. Some Taiwanese beauty-related sources are published as internal papers, while others such as Masters dissertations and PhD theses remain unpublished. Only a few papers related to beauty are published internationally and the majority of them keep their publications as internal and inaccessible. Some are published either in relation to or from the standpoint of such angles as the business, sociology, chemistry or ideology of beauty or bio-technology.

Secondly, information from government, organisation and institution websites is insufficient in Chinese, let alone English. Some documents were thus difficult to obtain, as the beauty sector is not yet fully developed. The bureaucratisation and formalism in educational institutions is clearly shown by responses such as those to an official request to departments of the HVET system for an English version of the curriculum: it was refused due to confidentiality, when the Chinese version is publicised on the website. In addition, the lack of industrial information limits the further investigation of the issues in industry.

Difficulties occurred constantly during the auto-ethnographic experience, when some important conversations or proposed questions were required to be recorded in informal settings: the flow of the conversation was interrupted and the atmosphere would become awkward when the request of recording was made. It was difficult to record the dialogue when they were informed of audio recording: the atmosphere of the conversation hanged. This unease occurred not only with learners but also with colleagues, and proved difficult to overcome.

Language presents another limitation of this study, especially as regards translation. Without professional training, it is difficult to translate a transcript from Chinese into English. It cannot be guaranteed that interviewee quotes are accurately translated, but the translation has been done as carefully as possible. Further to this point, some interviewees used such terms as 'knowledge', 'skills' and 'attributes' in their common, not specialist, sense, but they did find it difficult to understand these terms even after explanation. The conversations were diffuse and the questions could not be fully answered. The current investigation was thus limited by the uneven levels of expertise in Taiwan. Interviewees could only contribute to the level of their knowledge.

The variety of information, of its types and features, and especially of its interrelationships, increases the difficulty of maintaining focus. Details of some aspects such as the integration of levels of qualification, levels of competence standard and professional development and QA process in teaching could not be fully covered.

In order for Taiwanese readers to understand the UK's nurturing structure and its approaches, and in order to respond to the word limit, this study can only present an overview of the training system rather than giving great depth of study and detail on all aspects.

8.4 Recommendations for future work

This research has thrown up several questions in need of further investigation. It is recommended that further research be undertaken in the following areas:

1. A natural progression of this work is to analyse the competences required for each stage of the Service model. In other words, the identification of competences could also be restricted to those for each task and treatment, at least initially according to the Service model. Each competence could thus be easily determined for the relevant stage of preparation, consultation, application, care advice, recording and evaluation, allowing clear guidelines for teaching, learning, assessment and practice.

2. The skills, knowledge and attributes required for competence previously listed in this study were confirmed by the experts from education and industry as a detailed and thorough list that would equip graduates with overall competence. These competences identified in the study could be further developed into levels of competences for implementation in the curriculum and could thus serve as a reference for the future development of a NAOS.

3. The present study could not deal with the constitutions and structures for professional bodies and associations, but it is worth examining other countries' experiences regarding the regulations for establishing and conducting a professional body. Based on the recommendation for future establishment of professional body, further research in this field regarding the memberships, levels of professional validation and internal and external verifications would help on this matter.

4. Levels of training to expert and master, within professional development and overseen by the professional body, could also be defined for this field.

5. The relatively recent development of the beauty sector as the subject of academic research means that the present study could encourage practitioners and professionals with solid beauty-related backgrounds to become involved in research and development.

6. Further investigation and assessment of the applicability of these models to other disciplines is strongly recommended.

8.5 Summary of the chapter

This study focuses on the strategies to Taiwanese problems, not those of the UK, although such answers could benefit both countries to some extent. The fundamental causes of the mismatch between education and industry in Taiwan derive from the lack of a standard that is agreed by both sectors and lack of a platform for effective communication to take place. Setting a standard and platform requires a professional body's input to induce all stakeholders to communicate and interact with each other. Once the standard has been established, standardisation is required to ensure that it is maintained and that quality is assured through the QA process. These important features are identified in the UK's training approach, but are absent from that of Taiwan.

These considerations require the inclusion of relevant stakeholders - government, the future establishment of a professional body, education, industry and individuals - in the training models developed at every stage. Whether the proposed strategies are workable depends on the shape all stakeholders would like Taiwan to assume, and how they would like future generations to live. All are responsible for nurturing talent and providing a fair and prosperous future for the young, so that they in turn can work for the nation. Regardless of how much effort other stakeholders make, as the study as a whole indicates, individuals are the key to bridging gaps because only they can recognise where those gaps are in their careers.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Beauty treatment services

HABIA report (2001) lists 65 beauty business items offered shown below.

1. Manicure
2. Pedicure
3. Artificial nails/nail art
4. Facials (of any kind)
5. Depilation
6. Epilation
7. Wax treatments
8. Laser hair removal
9. Body wraps
10. Cellulite programmes
11. Dry and wet heat treatments
12. Ear piercing
13. Body massage
14. Aromatherapy
15. Chiropody
16. Reflexology
17. Semi-permanent make up
18. Red vein removal
19. Skin tags/wart removal
20. Tattooing
21. Micro-current
22. Vacuum suction
23. High frequency
24. Galvanic face and body
25. Faradic face and body
26. Body gyratory system
27. UV tanning
28. Make up (camouflage/fashion)
29. Eyelash perming
30. Manual lymphatic drainage
31. Non-surgical face lift
32. Colour and style - image consultants
33. Henna tattoo
34. Sclerotherapy
35. Cathiodermie
36. Collagen replacement
37. Stress release/relaxation
38. Micro dermabrasion/crystal clear
39. Sugaring
40. Shiatsu
41. Acupressure/acupuncture
42. Plasmalite hair removal
43. Treatment for psoriasis/skin complaints
44. Light therapy
45. Allergy testing
46. Kinesiology
47. Ayurveda
48. La Stone Therapy
49. Bowen technique
50. Hydrotherapy
51. Eyebrow shaping
52. Spineworks
53. Tibetan massage
54. Pain relief
55. Fitness instruction
56. Tooth jewellery
57. Hypnosis
58. Wedding make-over
59. Homeopathy
60. Temporary tattoo
61. Nail piercing
62. Flotation tank
63. Thalasso therapy
64. Slimming clinic
65. Postich

(Source from: Berry-Lound, D., E. Sauvé, et al. (2001). An Occupational Analysis of the Beauty Therapy Sector. Doncaster.)

Appendix B: UK beauty curricula and programme specifications

The detailed analysis of UK beauty curricula in Further Education (FE) and Higher Vocational Education and Training (HVET) is given as follows.

FE beauty qualifications and curriculum design

FE beauty qualifications and curriculum design in the UK is presented as a package and the progression is clearly shown on the qualification and the content units. The structure of qualification, content of units, credit value, guided learning hours (GLH) and learning outcomes are established in a similar fashion between these qualifications (See Table B-0-1), even though C&G and VTCT are more of a practical-focused vocational qualification and BTEC is more of an academic-focused vocational qualification.

Table B-0-1 shows that each type of FE qualification, regardless of whether it is C&G, VTCT or Edexcel, all contains a package of mandatory and optional units. The mandatory units, particularly for C&G (City & Guilds 2014), subdivide into generic units and technical units. The generic units focus on the input of theoretical and industrial knowledge relevant to beauty sectors such as the beauty industry, make-up artistry, hair industry and/or nail service industry. Furthermore, these mandatory units are established as a broad generic type of unit towards beauty related industries, but they will be delivered based on the line of work, guiding learners to apply the theoretical knowledge into their practice.

Technical units contain the underpinning knowledge and practical skills for each specific subject. In addition, there is a list of optional units to be chosen by the Programme Area Manager (PAM) or/and Programme Leader (PL)/Course Team Leader (CTL) to meet the minimum credit requirements and the maximum benefit for both college and learners. The difference between these qualifications is that some units are mandatory units to one awarding body, but

they may be optional units to others. Overall, the units are quite focused on the professional subject knowledge and skills.

Subsequently, some examples such as the same subject and level from different awarding bodies (see Table B-0-1) or the same awarding bodies with different levels of beauty subject (see Table B-0-2; Table B-0-3; Table B-0-4; Table B-0-5; Table B-0-6) are compared as follows.

Awarding bodies	C&G	VTCT	Edexcel	Credit value	GHL (Guiding Learning Hour)
Name of qualification	Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy	Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy Studies (QCF)	BTEC Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy		
Credits	54 credits and 468 GHL	40 credits and 352 GHL	60 credits and 476 to 524 GHL		
Mandatory Generic Units	Working in beauty related industries		Working in Beauty-related Industries *(optional unit)	4	31
	Follow health and safety in the salon	Follow health and safety practice in the salon	Follow Health and Safety Practice in the Salon	3	24 *(C&G) 22 *(VECT)
	Client care and communication in beauty related industries	Client care and communication in beauty-related industries	Client Care and Communication in Beauty-related Industries	2	20
	Promote products and service to clients in a salon		Promote Products and Services to Clients in a Salon	3	28
	Salon reception duties	Salon reception duties *(optional unit)	Salon Reception Duties *(optional unit)	3	24
Mandatory Technical Units	Provide facial skincare	Provide facial skincare	Provide Facial Skincare	7	56
	Remove hair using waxing techniques	Remove hair using waxing techniques	Remove Hair Using Waxing Techniques	6	57
	Provide manicure treatments	Provide manicure treatments	Provide Manicure Treatments	5	48
	Provide pedicure treatments	Provide pedicure treatments	Provide pedicure treatments	5	48
	Provide eyelash and brow treatments	Provide eyelash and brow treatments	Provide Eyelash and Brow Treatments	4	36
Optional Units	Apply make-up	Apply make-up	Apply Make-up *(Mandatory unit)	5	41
	Create an image based on a theme within the hair and beauty sector		Create an Image Based on a Theme within the Hair and Beauty Sector	7	60
	Provide and maintain nail enhancement			7	46
	Provide nail art	Provide nail art	Provide Nail Art	3	24
	Provide ear piercing	Provide ear piercing		2	17
	Eyelash perming	Provide eyelash perming		2	20
	Provide threading services for hair removal	Provide threading services for hair removal		4	29
	Head massage			4	30
	Apply skin tanning techniques	Apply skin tanning techniques		4	30
	Facial care for men			4	30
		Instruction on make-up application		5	34
		Remove hair using sugaring		4	29
		Display stock to promote sales in a salon	Display Stock to Promote Sales in a Salon	3	24
			Maintaining Personal Health and Wellbeing	7	Not specify
			Body Art Design	4	Not specify
			Make-up for Performers	10	Not specify
			The Living Body	10	Not specify
			Dermatology and Microbiology	5	Not specify
			Business Enterprise	10	Not specify

Table B-0-1: Comparison of 2014-15 qualifications Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy
*indicates the difference to others

Beauty Therapy Qualification Structure (City & Guilds)					
Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy (City & Guilds 2014a)			**Level 3 Diploma in Beauty Therapy Techniques** (City & Guilds 2014a)		
54 credits and 468 GHL			58 credits and 521 GLH		
Mandatory Generic Units (all must be completed)	Credits	GLH	Mandatory Generic Units (all must be completed)	Credits	GLH
Working in beauty related industries	4	31	Working with colleagues within the beauty related industries	2	14
Follow health and safety in the salon	3	24	Monitor and maintain health and safety practice in the salon	4	29
Client care and communication in beauty related industries	2	20	Client care and communication in beauty related industries	3	28
Promote products and service to clients in a salon	3	28	Promote and sell products and services to clients	4	34
Salon reception duties	3	24			
Mandatory Technical Units (all must be completed)			Mandatory Technical Units (all must be completed)		
Provide facial skincare Unit	7	56	Provide body massage	9	84
Remove hair using waxing techniques	6	57	Provide facial electrotherapy treatments	11	104
Provide manicure treatments	5	48	Provide body electrotherapy treatments	11	104
Provide pedicure treatments	5	48			
Provide eyelash and brow treatments	4	36			
Optional Units (minimum 12 credits required)			Optional Units (minimum 14 credits required)		
Apply make-up	5	41	Provide electrical epilation	11	88
Create an image based on a theme within the hair and beauty sector	7	60	Provide massage using pre-blended aromatherapy oils	7	65
Provide and maintain nail enhancement	7	46	Provide Indian head massage	6	49
Provide nail art	3	24	Provide UV tanning	2	20
Provide ear piercing	2	17	Provide self-tanning	3	25
Eyelash perming	2	20	Apply Individual permanent lashes	4	38
Provide threading services for hair removal	4	29	Intimate waxing for male clients	4	37
Head massage	4	30	Intimate waxing for female clients	4	37
Apply skin tanning techniques	4	30	Apply micro-dermabrasion	4	39
Facial care for men	4	30	Apply stone therapy massage	9	75
			Maintain personal health and wellbeing	7	60
			Explore technological developments within hair, beauty and associated areas	7	60
			Camouflage make up	7	60

Table B-0-2: Comparison of C&G Level 2 and 3 Diploma in Beauty Therapy

Hair and Media Make-up Qualification Structure (City & Guilds)								
Level 2			**Level 3**					
Level 2 Diploma in Hair and Media Make-up			**Level 3 Diploma in Hair and Media Make-up**			**Level 3 Diploma in Theatrical, Special Effects, Hair and Media Make-up**		
57 credits and 452 GHL			56 credits and 452 GHL			58 credits and 468 GLH		
Mandatory Generic Units (all must be completed)	Credits	GLH	Mandatory Generic Units (all must be completed)	Credits	GLH	Mandatory Generic Units (all must be completed)	Credits	GLH
Working in beauty related industries	4	31	Working with colleagues within the beauty related industries	2	14	Working with colleagues within the beauty related industries	2	14
Follow health and safety in the salon	3	24	Monitor and maintain health and safety practice in the salon	4	29	Monitor and maintain health and safety practice in the salon	4	29
Client care and communication in beauty related industries	2	20						
Mandatory Technical Units (all must be completed)			Mandatory Technical Units (all must be completed)			Mandatory Technical Units (all must be completed)		
Apply make-up	5	41	Creative hairdressing design skills	8	60	Creative hairdressing design skills	8	60
Provide eyelash and brow treatments	4	36	Design and apply face and body art	6	51	Design and apply face and body art	6	51
Create an image based on a theme within the hair and beauty sector	7	60	Fashion and photographic make-up	7	66	Fashion and photographic make-up	7	66
The art of photographic make-up	5	30	Apply airbrush make-up to the face	4	27	Apply airbrush make-up to the face	4	27
Body art design	4	30	Camouflage make-up	7	60	Media make-up	7	60
Apply skin tanning techniques	4	30				Apply prosthetic pieces and bald caps	6	40
The art of colouring hair	7	60						
The art of dressing hair	5	30						
Make and style a hair addition	7	60						
			Optional Units (minimum 18 credits required)			Optional Units (minimum 14 credits required)		
			Apply make-up	5	41	Apply make-up	5	41
			Provide eyelash and brow treatments	4	36	Provide eyelash and brow treatments	4	36
			The art of colouring hair	7	60	The art of colouring hair	7	60
			Provide self-tanning	3	25	Provide self-tanning	3	25
			Apply Individual permanent lashes	4	38	Apply Individual permanent lashes	4	38
			Media make-up	7	60	Style and fit postiche	7	60
			Style and fit postiche	7	60	Camouflage make-up	7	60
			Provide hair extension services	5	45	Provide hair extension services	5	45
			Style and dress hair using a variety of techniques	7	60	Style and dress hair using a variety of techniques	7	60
			Studio photography	10	70	Studio photography	10	70
			Principles of studio photography	8	60	Principles of studio photography	8	60
						Create and cast small prosthetic pieces and bald caps	6	40

Table B-0-3: Comparison of C&G Level 2 and 3 Diploma in Hair and Media Make-Up

Table B-0-2 shows an example of the C&G Diploma in Beauty Therapy Level 2 and Level 3 to prove the characteristics of development. Although the mandatory generic units appear to be alike, the purpose of repeating those units is not only to refresh learners' memory even if they have learned those units before, but also lecturers can stretch that knowledge further to the applications of Level 3. In terms of technical units, the treatment area has been expanded to the body from the face. Additionally, it clearly shows the advance of learning, from manual methods to incorporating electrical equipment. Learners need to adjust and make a judgement of the time, frequency and current according to the customer's skin conditions when operating electrical equipment. The complexity would certainly depend on the application of the level.

Table B-0-3 presents the subject units of Hair and Media Make-up, which is a slightly different route to Beauty Therapy although they are categorised under Beauty Therapy in FE level. It can be seen from Table B-0-3 that some subject units, such as those that provide eyelash and brow treatment, apply make-up, apply skin tanning techniques and so on, in Level 2, overlap with some units of Beauty Therapy (see Table B-0-2), while Hair and Media Make-up qualifications share the same route as Beauty Therapy. In other words, this will allow learners from Beauty Therapy Level 2 to apply Hair and Media Make-up Level 3, so long as they meet the entrance requirements. The entrance requirements specific for this field are an art portfolio or few sketches to prove that they are right for the course apart from general requirements such as English (GCSE A-D), 80% attendance and positive references, thus requiring more criteria compared to the route of Beauty Therapy. These criteria would be considered as a measure of whether learners could upgrade to Level 3, as Level 3 Hair and Media Make-Up contains more specialised units and creativity such as Face and Body Design.

Level 3 in Hair and Make-up also provides two routes. One is 'Hair and Media Make-up', which is purely an extended course from Level 2. The progression

from Level 2 to Level 3 is gradual and makes evident the expansion of knowledge and skills. In this route, learners will only be required to apply prosthetic pieces rather than produce them. The other route has stretched further to a more specialist area and puts the emphasis onto the field of special effects. Not only will learners learn how to make prosthetic pieces, but also apply them to create a character. The two career routes are distinguished more clearly at degree level. At HVET level, Hair and Media Make-up tend to be categorised under the programme of Performing Arts or Creative Studies.

Table B-0-4 is an example of VTCT qualification and curriculum from Level 1 to 4: the progression could be identified from the subject units.

	VTCT Level 1 Diploma in Beauty Therapy	Credits	VTCT Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Specialist Techniques	Credits	VTCT Level 3 Diploma in Beauty Therapy Treatments	Credits	VTCT Level 4 Diploma in Advanced Beauty Therapy	Credits
	Mandatory units - 40 credits		Mandatory units - 54 credits		Mandatory units - 42 credits		Mandatory units - 83 credits	
Units	Follow health and safety in the salon	3	Follow health and safety practice in the salon	3	Monitor and maintain health and safety practice in the salon	4	Management of health, safety and security in the salon	8
	Introduction to the hair and beauty sector	3	Client care and communication in beauty related industries	2	Client care and communication in beauty related industries	3	Chemistry of hair and beauty products	14
	Providing basic manicure treatment	3	Provide manicure treatments	5	Working in beauty related industries	4	Physiology of ageing	10
	Providing basic pedicure treatment	3	Provide pedicure treatments	5	Provide body massage	9	Quality management of client care in the hair and beauty sector	12
	Basic make-up application	3	Apply make-up	5	Provide facial electrotherapy treatments	11	Dermatology and microbiology	5
	Skin care	3	Provide eyelash and brow treatments	4	Provide body electrotherapy treatments	11	Apply micro dermabrasion	4
	Working with others in the hair and beauty sector	2	Provide facial skin care	7			Laser and light treatments for hair removal	10
	Creating a hair and beauty image	3	Remove hair using waxing techniques	6			Laser and light treatments for skin Rejuvenation	10
	Presenting a professional image in a salon	3	Salon reception duties	3			Salon management	10
	Salon reception duties	3	Optional units -14 credits (minimum)		Optional units -16 credits (minimum)		Optional units -10 credits (minimum)	
	Themed face painting	3	Apply skin tanning techniques	4	Provide massage using pre-blended aromatherapy oils	7	Public relation (PR) in the hair and beauty sector	10
Units	The art of photographic make-up	5	Contribute to the effective running of business	3	Provide electrical epilation	11	Cultural, social and technological influences on beauty-related industries	5
	Nail art application	3	Display stock to promote sales in a salon	3	Apply individual permanent lashes	4	Research in the hair and beauty sector	7
			Instruction on make-up application	5	Intimate waxing for male clients	4	IT and data handling in the hair and beauty sector	5
			Provide ear piercing	2	Intimate waxing for female clients	4	Marketing in the hair and beauty sector	6
			Provide threading services for hair removal	4	Provide self-tanning	3		
			Remove hair using sugaring	4	Nail enhancements and advanced hand and nail art techniques	7		
			Provide eyelash perming	2	IT and data handling in the hair and beauty sector	5		
			Provide nail art	3	Contribute to the effective running of business	3		
			Create an image based on a theme within the hair and beauty sector	7	Provide Indian head massage	6		
					Apply micro-dermabrasion	4		
					Apply stone therapy massage	9		
					Explore technological developments within the hair beauty and associated areas	7		

Table B-0-4: Example of VTCT Level 1 to 4 Diploma in beauty Therapy

HVET beauty qualifications and curriculum

Edexcel offers BTEC Higher Nationals, which has a different approach compared to C&G, VTCT and degree levels of curriculum. BTEC Higher Nationals is an academic-based qualification in the vocational education pathway. There is also a variety of beauty and make-up related subjects for learners to choose from. According to QCF, a minimum 120 credits for each level is required. Table B-0-5 shows an example of a Hair and Beauty Management programme. The credits could be combined from a list of 35 units, that covers units of Level 3, 4 and 5 particularly selected for Hair and Beauty Management, for institutions to choose the right units for their learners (see BTEC Higher Nationals: Hair and Beauty Management specification, Edexcel 2011). Some institutions, for instance Bournville College (2014), offer a Hair Pathway and Beauty Pathway with the same mandatory units and slightly different specialist units from the list of units.

HND in Hair and Beauty Management (Chichester College/Edexcel) (Chichester College 2011)			Level	Credits	HND in Hair and Beauty Salon Management (Bournville College/Edexcel - Beauty Pathway) (Bournville College 2014)			Level	Credits
Year 1	Mandatory core units (39 credits)	Quality management of client care in the Hair and Beauty Sector	4	12	Year 1	Mandatory core units (39 credits)	Quality management of client care in the Hair and Beauty Sector	4	12
		Salon management	4	10			Salon management	4	10
		Management of Health, Safety and Security in the Salon	4	8			Management of Health, Safety and Security in the Salon	4	8
		Sales management in the Hair & Beauty Sector	4	9			Sales management in the Hair & Beauty Sector	4	9
	Specialist units (81 credits)	Physical Activity, Lifestyle and Wellbeing	4	15		Specialist units (81 credits)	Physical Activity, Lifestyle and Wellbeing	4	15
		Provide Indian Head Massage	3	6			Provide Indian Head Massage	3	6
		Aromatherapy for Beauty Therapy	5	15			Aromatherapy for Beauty Therapy	5	15
		Physiology of Ageing	4	10			Physiology of Ageing	4	10
		Reflexology for Beauty Therapy	5	15			Managing Financial Decisions	4	15
		Sport and Exercise Massage	4	15			Chemistry of Hair and Beauty Products	4	14
		Sport and Exercise Rehabilitation	5	15			Human Health and Nutrition	4	15
Year 2	Specialist units (81 credits)	Research Project	5	20	Year 2	Specialist units (81 credits)	Research Project	5	20
		Chemistry of Hair and Beauty products	4	14			Sport and Exercise Massage	4	15
		Working with and Leading People	5	15			Business Strategy	5	15
		Public Relations (PR) in the Hair and Beauty Sector	4	10			Personal and Professional Development	5	15
		Business Decision Making	5	15			**Business Psychology**	5	15
		Small Business Enterprise	5	15			Human Resource Management	4	15
		Business Psychology	5	15			Working with and Leading People	5	15
		Employability Skills	5	15			Small Business Enterprise	5	15
		Level 3 – 6 credits Level 4 – 103 credits Level 5 – 140 credits					Level 3 – 6 credits Level 4 – 138 credits Level 5 – 110 credits		
Total			249		Total			254	

Table B-0-5: A comparison of BTEC Higher Nationals in Hair and Beauty Management

The subtlety between C&G Level 4 Diploma in Management Practice and Advanced Techniques in the Hair and Beauty Sector for Theatrical and Media Make-Up and for Beauty can be seen in Table B-0-6. Quite a few units are designated in very broad terms within the beauty related industries that could be delivered in either pathway of beauty or make-up. However, it could be that because the majority of units are too generic, it appears to have a lack of practical units that normally would attract practitioners to further development. What is more, the units at Level 4 are relatively similar. In other words, the relevant knowledge learned between pathways and the training between these awarding bodies is transferable.

	C&G Level 4 Diploma in Management Practice and Advanced Techniques in the Hair and Beauty Sector – Theatrical and Media Make-Up (City & Guilds 2014b)	Credits	C&G Level 4 Diploma in Management Practice and Advanced Techniques in the Hair and Beauty Sector – Beauty (City & Guilds 2014b)	Credits	VTCT Level 4 Diploma in Advanced Beauty Therapy	Credits	BTEC Level 4 Higher National Certificate (HNC) in Hair and Beauty Management (Selby College 2015)	Credits
	Mandatory units - 12 credits		Mandatory units - 12 credits		Mandatory units - 83 credits		Mandatory units - 39 credits	
Units	Quality management of client care in the hair and beauty sector	12	Quality management of client care in the hair and beauty sector	12	Quality management of client care in the hair and beauty sector	12	Quality management of client care in the hair and beauty sector	12
	Optional units -80 credits (minimum)		Optional units Group A -27 credits (minimum)		Salon management	14	Salon management	10
	Make and test beauty therapy products	5	Make and test beauty therapy products	5	Management of Health, Safety and Security in the Salon	8	Management of Health, Safety and Security in the Salon	8
	Principles of studio photography	8	Cultural, social and technological influences on beauty-related industries	5	Physiology of ageing	10	Sales management in the Hair & Beauty Sector	9
	Studio photography	10	Dermatology and microbiology	5	Dermatology and microbiology	5		
	Create and cast small prosthetic pieces and bald caps	6	Apply micro dermabrasion techniques	4	Apply micro dermabrasion	4		
	Apply prosthetic pieces and bald caps	6	Laser and light treatments for hair removal	10	Laser and light treatments for hair removal	10		
	Research in the fashion, theatrical, special effects and media make-up industry	10	Laser and light treatments for skin rejuvenation	10	Laser and light treatments for skin Rejuvenation	10		
	Create and present a design plan in the fashion, theatrical, special effects and media make-up industry	8	Advanced epilation techniques	7	Chemistry of hair and beauty products	14		
	Enhance appearance using micro-pigmentation treatment	12	Enhance appearance using micro-pigmentation treatment	12				
	Manage the creation of a hair style collection	10	Optional units Group B -50 credits (minimum)		Optional units -10 credits (minimum)		Specialist units -81 credits (minimum)	
	Public relations in the hair and beauty sector	10	Public relations in the hair and beauty sector	10	Public relation (PR) in the hair and beauty sector	10	Advanced Epilation Techniques	7
	Marketing in the hair and beauty sector	6	Marketing in the hair and beauty sector	6	Cultural, social and technological influences on beauty-related industries	5	Physical Activity, Lifestyle and Wellbeing	15
	Research in the hair and beauty sector	7	Research in the hair and beauty sector	7	Research in the hair and beauty sector	7	Human Health and Nutrition	15
	Salon management	10	Salon management	10	IT and data handling in the hair and beauty sector	5	Provide Indian Head Massage	6
	Chemistry of hair and beauty products	14	Chemistry of hair and beauty products	14	Marketing in the hair and beauty sector	6	Reflexology for Beauty Therapy	15
	Physiology of ageing	10	Physiology of ageing	10			Sport and Exercise Massage	15
	Sales management in the hair and beauty sector	9	Sales management in the hair and beauty sector	9			Working with and Leading People	15
	Human resource management within the hair and beauty sector	7	Human resource management within the hair and beauty sector	7				
	Management of health, safety and security in the salon	8	Management of health, safety and security in the salon	8				

Table B-0-6: A comparison of C&G, VTCT and BTEC Beauty related programmes of Level 4

Table B-0-7 and Table B-0-8 display HVET beauty curriculum in different programmes awarded by different HVET institutions that the FE institution partnerships with. For example, the HVET programme of 'Advanced Practices in Beauty Therapy' was undertaken at Bradford College which is in a partnership with Leeds Metropolitan University. Therefore, Leeds Metropolitan University will be the awarding body.

Advanced Practices in Beauty Therapy (Bradford College/Leeds metropolitan University)		Credits	Beauty and Spa Management (North East Worcestershire College/University of Worcester)		Credits
Year 1 (Fd in Advanced Practices in Beauty Therapy)	Personal Development Planning (PDP)	30	Year 1 (Fd in Beauty and Spa Management)	Introduction to study Skills	15
	Work Based Learning	30		Client Focus and Customer Care	15
	Clinical Therapists	15		Advanced Skin Technologies	15
	Remedial Message and Hydrotherapy	15		Leadership Skills within an Organisation	15
	Advanced Physiology	15		Infection Control Management	15
	Aromatherapy & Reflexology	15		Legal and Ethical Framework	15
				Human Resource Management	15
				Interpersonal Communication Skills	15
Year 2 (Fd in Advanced Practices in Beauty Therapy)	PDP	30	Year 2 (Fd in Beauty and Spa Management)	Laser and Pulsed Light Therapy	15
	Work Based Learning	30		Creative in Marketing	15
	Advanced Reflexology	15		Evidence and Research for Spa/Salon Management	15
	Advanced Aromatherapy	15		Retail Design	15
	Legal framework for Practitioners	15		Managing Innovation and Change	15
	IT practice Operations in the Workplace	15		Coaching in the Workplace	15
				Well and Health Promotion	15
				Business Practice	15
Year 3 (Top-up in Beauty Therapy Management)	PDP	15	[redacted]		
	Work Based Learning	30			
	Management in the Beauty Therapy Business	30			
	Psychological Aspects of Beauty Therapy Practices	15			
	Dissertation	30			
Total		360			

Table B-0-7: UK HVET curriculum in Beauty Therapy

Hair and Make-up for Film and TV (London College of Fashion/University of the Arts London)		Credits	Media Make-up with Special Effects (Bradford College/Teesside University)		Credits
Year 1 (Fd in Hair and Make-up for Film and TV)	Introduction to study in Higher Education	20	Year 1 (Fd in Media Make-up with Special Effects)	Studio Practice 1A (Media Make-up)	20
	Design and Technical Processes	20		Studio Practice 1B (Intermediate Media Make-up)	20
	Introduction to Cultural and Historical Studies	20		Special Effects with Character Make-Up	20
	Design and Technical Practice	20		Prosthetics with Character Make-up	20
	Work Based Learning -Industrial practice for Hair and Make-up for Film and TV	40		Personal Development Planning	20
				Contextual Studies 1	20
Year 2 (Fd in Hair and Make-up for Film and TV)	Cultural and Historical Studies	20	Year 2 (Fd in Media Make-up with Special Effects)	Studio Practice 2A (Further Media Make-up/Postiche)	20
	Techniques, Creativity, Production	20		Studio Practice 2B (Portfolio Building)	20
	Work Based Learning - Collaborative Production for Hair and Ma ke-up for Film and TV	20		Intermediate Prosthetics	20
				Creative Make-up Design and Application	20
	Portfolio Review and Professional Practice	20		Professional Development	20
	Negotiated Production	40		Contextual Studies 2	20
Year 3 (Top-up year in Hair and Make-up for Film and TV)	Research Planning for Hair and Make-up for Film and TV	20	Year 3 (in Media Make-up with Special Effects)	Studio Practice 3A	20
				Major Project	40
	Cultural and Historical Studies Dissertation	40		Professional Practice	20
	Final Major Project for Hair and Make-up for Film and TV	60		Professional Portfolio Promotion	20
				Dissertation	20
Total		360			360

Table B-0-8: UK HE curriculum in Hair, Make-up and Special Effects Design

The titles of beauty related programmes display the variety ranging from advanced technical programmes to management, which provides diverse career routes to meet the demand in the professional areas. HVET qualifications contain different credit values for each module. The modules are kept subject related and have demonstrated the level of progression. Three subject categories - Beauty Therapy related, Hair and Make-up and AMSE - are taken as examples to analyse. The modules listed are different from one to another, but these modules still show the advanced level of learning compared with units of Level 2 and 3 (See Table B-0-1 to Table B-0-4).

Some modules in year one such as Aromatherapy could be a development from the unit 'Provide massage using pre-blended aromatherapy oils' in Level 3 (Table B-0-2) and it was advanced at year two (Table B-0-7). The importance of Physiology can be seen as it is one of the mandatory subjects that will be delivered and examined at each level from FE to HVET. Although it is the same subject, the depth of the subject was also showed to meet different levels of understanding.

At HVET level, it is no longer about the ability to prepare and apply the treatment. Learners are required to acquire the ability in planning, researching, analysing and evaluating. During this process, it also requires a demonstration of critical thinking and problem-solving skills in their learning. It reflects learners' knowledge, skills and attributes through this process. In other words, in these competences learners would be challenged through assignments and assessments. However, it is important to note that individuals' attributes are difficult to justify without bias and normally easily overlooked.

Table B-0-7 demonstrates the simplicity and the focus of the subject. These modules are not only an expansion of knowledge and skills from FE, but also a package of training for preparing for employment and establishing a career. For instance, although the Beauty and Spa Management programme shown below only provides a touch of advanced beauty therapy, it also provides a skill set of

training for being a manager of a salon/spa such as infection control management, Human Resource management, coaching in the workplace and so forth. With a clear programme specification, learners will be able to choose the route which they are interested in developing.

Appendix C: Taiwan beauty curricula and programme specification

According to the English translation of the programme name, some titles of the programme in Chinese are alike, but appear differently in English (see Appendix H), which could be very confusing. After checking with some institutions, it was realised that there is no system to examine and unify the translation of key terms. This could be a barrier for internationalisation.

The content of the programmes is similar, but different. The noticeable difference is the proportions of the subject emphasised in the programme. For example, the programme of cosmetic science contains a wide range of subjects relating to hair styling, make-up design, skin care and cosmetic science: however, there are more modules of cosmetic related subjects (chemistry, cosmetic formulations and practice, cosmetic testing and evaluation, etc.) and small proportions of hair styling, make-up design and skin care. As to the programmes related to cosmetology and styling, the proportion would be highly focused on the subjects of hairdressing and make-up design, skin care and fewer subjects on cosmetic science, aesthetic medicine and so on.

Taking another example from the programme of Styling & Cosmetology in TransWorld University (2013) (no.23 of Appendix H), the curriculum is divided into three programmes: 'Facial and Beauty Care', 'Fashion Design' and 'Model Training'. The Facial and Beauty Care programme focuses on basic facial and body care training and knowledge of health care; while the Fashion Design program contains hair styling, makeup designing and fashion designing. The last programme, Model Training, provides a wide range of subjects including nutrition, health care, cosmetic medicine, cosmetic application, model training and performing arts. The programme title and subject content do not reflect the uniqueness of its classification. In recent years, the idea of pathway-group was implemented into HE. The concept of module-group is to focus on particular specialist subjects when learners could decide which route they

would like to choose as their career pathway after year 3 or 4 of HE. For example, Chia Nan University of Pharmacy & Science (no.24 of Appendix H) has offered three pathway-groups: Cosmetic Science Research & Development, Beauty and Health, Fashion Make-up and Styling Design. Each group contains 10 modules and each module is valued for 2 credits. From the table below, the similarity of pathway-groups between the institutions can be found, regardless of the name of the programme.

Name of institution	Name of programme	Pathway-group 1	Pathway-group 2	Pathway-group 3
University of King Ning	Department of Health and Beauty	Make-up and Modelling	Body Care	Beauty Industry Management
Chia Nan University of Pharmacy & Science	Department of Cosmetic Science	Cosmetic Science Research & Development	Beauty and Health	Fashion make-up and Styling design
Tainan University of Technology	Department of Styling and Cosmetology	Styling	Cosmetology	

Table C-0-9: A comparison of pathways in beauty related programmes

The core courses that are compulsory include general courses established by the government, as well as core courses requested by the institute and department. Those general subjects will be less practical if they could not be linked to the subject of the profession. For instance, the subject of Workplace Ethics could be a very general subject, but if the lecturer could make it specific to the relevant subject of beauty practice it would appeal to learners more, which is a challenge to a lot of lecturers, who deliver these type of general subjects. It either challenges the lecturer's knowledge or the learners' ability to apply theory into practice. However, this type of general subject tends to be delivered to a wide range of learners from various departments.

BA Cosmetic Science related programmes

The programme of Cosmetic Science could have different module groups. For example, the programme of Cosmetic Applications and Management in Taipei

Chengshih University of Science & Technology (TPCU) has two module groups: Cosmetology & Styling and Beauty Care. Yet again, the curricula cover skin care, make-up, hairdressing, cosmetics science and so on.

BA Applied Cosmetic Science in Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health (see Table C-0-10) covers a variety of relevant subjects including cosmetic science, modelling, make-up, hair, art & design, beauty and so forth. The reason for covering all sorts of subjects is because, according to EE01 and EE13, who were the chairmen of the department, the strategy was for attracting a wider range of learners. It would be too niche if the subjects are too specific. Therefore, when every institute has the similar strategy, it means that there is no strategy.

English and Computer skills are considered to be basic competences to possess. Core competences are basic cosmetic science and specialist professional skills, the ability to communicate and work with the experts in education and industry, awareness of work ethics and social responsibilities, the knowledge and skills to practice in make-up, ability to self-reflect, learn and progress (Department of Cosmetic Applications and Management n.d.).

BA Styling and Cosmetology related programmes

A comparison of the programmes of Styling and Cosmetology and Style Design and Fashion Performance is given below. It can be seen that two HVET institutes demonstrate focused subjects in the curriculum. The problem is that they did not specify the depth. For example, the subject of skin care, hair design, make-up design and nail art is normally set at NVQs or VRQs Level of 2 or 3 in the UK (see Appendix B). According to the specification of special effects in BA Styling and Cosmetology (Taina University of Technology), it mainly covers wounds, gun shot, bruising, grazing and so forth, which is equivalent to FE level of the UK. In this case, there is no comparable level of knowledge and skill of professional make-up specialists at a degree level.

	BA Styling and Cosmetology (Taina University of Technology)	Credit	BA Department of Style Design and Fashion Performance (Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health)	Credit
General Education	**Compulsory Core Courses**		**Compulsory Core Courses**	
	Native Language I, II	6	Not specified	
	College English I, II	4		
	Integrated Training of English Proficiency	2		
	Civil Society and Culture	2		
	Workplace Ethics	2		
	Application of Computer and Information	2		
	Physical Education (PE) I, II	0		
	Personal Option of PE Class I, II	4		
	Military Training I, II	0		
	Multiple Service of Learning I, II	0		
	Elective Categorized Courses (Minimum 4 credits)			
	Category of Humanity Arts	2		
	Category of Social Science	2		
	Category of Natural Science	2		
	Core Courses		**Core Courses**	
Professional Courses	**Compulsory Core Courses of College of Living Technology**		**Compulsory Core Courses of College (6 Credits)**	
	Colour Theory and Harmony	2	Not specified	
	Marketing	2		
	Compulsory Core Courses		**Compulsory Core Courses**	
	Dermatology	2	Colour using in style design	
	Skin Care and Beauty Therapy	3	Model Training	
	The Introduction of Styling History I, II	4	Style design in the fashion show stage	
	Hair Design I, II	6	Multiple media homepage design	
	Pose and Etiquette	2	Creative hair design	
	Cosmetics Science	2	The history of western art	
	Makeup Design (2D)	3	Style design in the films,	
	Makeup Design I, II	6	Basic hairstyle design	
	Hair Colouring Design	4	Creative Make up	
	Hair Setting and Styling Design	4	The application of drawing in style design	
	Aesthetic Business Administration and Management	2	Style design(I)	
	Fashion Hair Design	3	Nail art	
	Styling Design	3	Social event coordinating	
	Seminar I, II	4	The photography in Style Designing	
	Computer Aided Cosmetology & Styling I, II	4	Creativity and career developing	
	Professional Internship	4	Creativity and career developing	
	[redacted]		Body training	
			Voice training	
			Introduction to performance art and theatre	
			Fashion aesthetics	
			Graduate producing(I)	
			Graduate producing(II)	
	Elective Courses of Styling Module Group		[redacted]	
	Accessories Design	3		
	Textiles for Fashion	3		
	Nail Design & Making	3		
	Special Effect	3		
	Body Painting	3		
	Gent's Hair Design	3		

	Elective Courses of Cosmetology Module Group		
	Reflexology	3	
	Manicure Arts	3	
	Aesthetic Medicine	2	
	Photography	2	
	Skin Care and Nutrition	2	
	The Plan and Diet Design for Body Shaping	2	
	Aroma Therapy and Body Sculpture	4	
	Common Elective Courses		**Elective Courses**
	Perfume Studies	2	
	Applied Drawing	2	
	Mask Design and Making	2	
	English in Cosmetics	2	
	Japanese in Cosmetics	2	
	Vogue and fashion Trends	2	
	Human Resource Management for Fashion Business	2	
	Creative and Styling Design	4	
			Business and marketing managing
			Screenplay reading and Writing
			Creativity and career developing Introduction to performance and culture industry
			Creativity and career developing

Table C-0-10: A comparison of Styling and Cosmetology related programmes

Taina University of Technology has specified the core competence for the programme: beauty/make-up skill, hair styling skill, creative thinking, analysis and problem-solving, communication/co-ordination/co-operation, application of technological information, international outlook and foreign language. Basic attainment includes teamwork, communication, dedication, humanities, problem-solving, creative, planning & integration, Information Technology (Taina University of Technology 2016).

Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health institute did not specify the competences for the programme of BA Style Design and Fashion Performance,

but it could be seen that it is embedded in the aim of the education. The similarity can be seen between two curriculum in Table C-0-10.

> *"Students would have professionalism, dependable, creativity, and co-operation etc. in work ethic, aesthetics concern, and vision of fashion trend as well as the ability in adjusting to the work environment. Besides Style design and fashion performance techniques, students would also have the ability in marketing, the knowledge of art, and the skills of negotiation."*

These core competences were stated as promotion for the programme rather than a specification of how these competences are implemented into learning outcomes to be achieved.

BA Health and Beauty (University of King Ning)

The curriculum for the programme of health and Beauty is divided into three module groups: Makeup and Modelling, Body Care and Beauty Industry Management. This programme initially was only established at level of 2 years' junior college or as a group of programmes at University level. University of King Ning promoted this programme to a university level in 2011. The minimum credit for completion is 130 (34 for Compulsory Core Courses of University, 6 credits for Compulsory Core Courses of College, 63 for Compulsory Core Courses and 27 Elective Courses of each module group) (University of King Ning 2011). Because the programme does not provide an English version of curriculum, the name of the modules was translated by the author with Chinese original term attached for reference.

Their curriculum map shows that the modules lay particular stress on cosmetic sciences in the module group of Makeup & Modelling, apart from some mixed subjects related to makeup and skin care. According to the title of subjects, those related to makeup and skin care appears very basic and not much difference is evident compared to FE level.

A comparison of the programmes of Styling and Cosmetology, Applied Cosmetic Science and Health and Beauty is given below:

	2014 BA Styling and Cosmetology (Taina University of Technology)	Credit	2016 BA Applied Cosmetic Science (Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health)	Credit	2014 BA Health and Beauty (University of King Ning)	Credit
General Education	**Compulsory Core Courses**		**Compulsory Core Courses**		**Compulsory Core Courses (34 Credits)**	
	Native Language I, II	6	Not specified[37]		Native Language	2
	College English I, II	4			English reading (I, II)	4
	Integrated Training of English Proficiency	2			English listening & speaking (I, II, III, IV)	4
	Civil Society and Culture	2			Physical Education (I, II, III, IV)	4
	Workplace Ethics	2			Application of Computer and Information	2
	Application of Computer and Information	2			General Education (一般通識)	18
	Physical Education (PE) I, II	0			Military Training (I, II)	0
	Personal Option of PE Class I, II	4			Multiple Service of Learning I, II	0
	Military Training I, II	0			[redacted]	
	Multiple Service of Learning I, II	0				
	Elective Categorized Courses (Minimum 4 credits)					
	Category of Humanity Arts	2				
	Category of Social Science	2				
	Category of Natural Science	2				
	Core Courses		**Core Courses**		**Core Courses**	
Professional Courses	**Compulsory Core Courses of College of Living Technology**		**Compulsory Core Courses of College (6 Credits)**		**Compulsory Core Courses of College (6 Credits)**	
	Colour Theory and Harmony	2	Not specified		Business Ethics	3
	Marketing	2			Marketing	3
	Compulsory Core Courses		**Compulsory Core Courses**		**Compulsory Core Courses (63 Credits)**	
	Dermatology	2	Chemistry		Makeup Design and Practices	3
	Skin Care and Beauty Therapy	3	Chemistry Experiment		Introduction to Cosmetic Management	2
	The Introduction of Styling History I, II	4	Cosmetic Chemistry		Chromatics	2
	Hair Design I, II	6	Cosmetic Preparation		Skin Care and Practices	3
	Pose and Etiquette	2	Introduction to Biochemistry		Meridian and Beauty Care	2
	Cosmetics Science	2	Cosmetic Inspection		Chemistry for Beauty	3
	Makeup Design (2D)	3	Cosmetic Microbiology & Experiment		Human physiology	2
	Makeup Design I, II	6	Natural Product Cosmetic		Body Management and Health	2
	Hair Colouring Design	4	Efficacy Evaluation of Cosmetics		Introduction to Aromatherapy	2
	Hair Setting and Styling Design	4	Biotechnology of Cosmetics		Nutriology for Beauty	2
	Aesthetic Business Administration and Management	2	Biology		Cosmetic Ingredients	2

[37] Not specified on the university's website. No information was available when it was requested at the university.

	Fashion Hair Design	3	Anatomy and Physiology (I)	Styling Design I	3
	Styling Design	3	Anatomy and Physiology (II)	Dermatology	2
	Seminar I, II	4	Production to Beauty and Health Care	Aromatherapy and Practices	3
	Computer Aided Cosmetology & Styling I, II	4	Nutriology for Beauty	Technology of Emulsion for Cosmetics	2
	Professional Internship	4	Naturopathy	Body Relaxation and SPA Practices (美體舒壓與 SPA 實務)	3
			Aromatic Ecology	Beauty Marketing management	3
			Ching-Row Medicine	Aesthetic Medicine	2
			Cosmetic Pharmacology	Chinese Medicine Cosmetology	2
			Aesthetic Medicine	Cosmetics Manufacturing and Experiment	3
			Chromatics	Accounting	3
			Popular Iconograph	Aesthetics Industry Management	2
			Make Up Skills and Practices	Internal Internship (I, II)	4
			Modelling Design and Practices (I)	Introduction to Dietary Wellness	2
			Modelling Design and Practices (II)	Human Resource Management for Beauty Industry	2
			Hairdo Design	Consumer Behaviour	2
	Elective Courses of <u>Styling Module Group</u>		Make Up	**Elective Courses of <u>Makeup & Modelling, Body Care and Beauty Industry Management Group</u> (27 Credits)**	
	Accessories Design	3	Accoutrements Design	Nail Arts (I, II)	4
	Textiles for Fashion	3	Performance Art	Pose and Etiquette	2
	Nail Design & Making	3	Cosmetologist Practices Training	Beauty Psychology	2
	Special Effect	3	Cosmetic Regulations and Laws	Cosmetic Regulations and Laws	2
	Body Painting	3	Reading and Discussion	Biology	2
	Gent's Hair Design	3	Issue Research (I)	Beauty Hygiene	2
	Elective Courses of <u>Cosmetology Module Group</u>		Issue Research (II)	Makeup Design (2D)	3
	Reflexology	3	Home Economics	Application of Beauty Instrument	2
	Manicure Arts	3	Safe and Hygiene of Occupation	English in Beauty	2
	Aesthetic Medicine	2	Psychology	Cosmetics Quality Management	2
	Photography	2	Marketing	International Etiquette	2
	Skin Care and Nutrition	2	Popular Education	Beauty Professional Skills (I, II)	6
	The Plan and Diet Design for Body Shaping	2		Commercial software applications (商業軟體應用)	3
	Aroma Therapy and Body Sculpture	4		Retail services	3
				The Foundation of Hairstyling Design	3
				Statistics	3
				Accessories Design	3
				Creative and Styling Design	3
				Massage Skills	3
				Introduction to Health Food	2
				Special Effect	3

				Body Painting	3
	Common Elective Courses		**Elective Courses**	Natural products and spices	3
	Perfume Studies	2	Evaluation of Cosmetic Safety	SPSS and Statistical Analysis	3
	Applied Drawing	2	Professional Skin Care	Interpersonal and communication	2
	Mask Design and Making	2	Nutriology for Beauty	Creative Makeup Design	3
	English in Cosmetics	2	Energy medicine	Disease Prevention and Health Care	2
	Japanese in Cosmetics	2	Hydrotherapy	Yoga and Beauty	2
	Vogue and fashion Trends	2	Ingredient	Economics	3
	Human Resource Management for Fashion Business	2	Formula Design of Cosmetics	Introduction to Research Methodology	3
	Creative and Styling Design	4	Professional Body Care and Practices	Styling Design II	3
			Aromatherapy	Cosmetic Inspection & Test	3
			Introduction of Chinese Medicine in Cosmetics	Financial Management	3
			Practice of Beauty Consultation	Customer Relationship Management	3
			Skin Care	Organizational Behaviour	3
			Haircutting Skills and Practices (I)	Bridal Secretary	3
			Haircutting Skills and Practices (II)	Beauty Management	3
			Performance	External Internship (I, II)	6
			Art History	Cosmetics Safety Assessment	3
			Photography	Innovative thinking	2
			Dressing Design	Seminar for Business Management	3
			Make Up	Final Project (I, II)	6
			Merchandise Design	Introduction to Chinese herbal medicine	2
			Career Development	Introduction to Natural Remedies	2
			Managements	Introduction to Biotechnology	3
				The practice of beauty shop planning and display	3
				Seminar	3

Table C-0-11: A comparison of beauty related programmes

The programme states that learners will be equipped with three core competences: make-up & modelling, body care and beauty industry management (Department of Health & Beauty 2011). Surprisingly, the three core competences are exactly same as the module groups that learners will be divided into, according to their career route in the third year of degree course. In other words, the competences the group of beauty industry management students are equipped with is not necessarily the same as the group of makeup

& modelling. In this case, the university appears to mistake the professional specialisms as core competences.

There is a difficulty in obtaining a full English version of curricula. The challenge of analysing Taiwan beauty curricula is that there are very few universities that provide an English version of their curriculum or even a complete one. In addition, the majority of the information on their website is not available in English.

From the information provided above, it can be seen that core competences are established at institutional or programme level rather than implemented into learning outcomes.

Appendix D: Level descriptors

This Appendix list compares NVQs levels of descriptors with HE qualification level descriptors:

Levels	NVQs Descriptors	HE Level Descriptors
Level 1	Competence, which involves the application of knowledge and skills in the performance of a range of varied work activities, most of which may be routine or predictable.	[redacted]
Level 2	Competence, which involves the application of knowledge and skills in a significant range of varied work activities, performed in a variety of work contexts. Some of the activities are complex or non-routine and there is some individual responsibility and autonomy. Collaboration with others, perhaps through membership of a work group or team, may often be a requirement.	
Level 3	Competence, which involves the application of knowledge and skills in a broad range of varied work activities, performed in a wide variety of contexts, most of which are complex or non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy, and control or guidance of others is often required.	
Level 4 **(HVET level 1)**	Competence, which involves the application of knowledge and skills in a broad range of complex technical or professional work activities, performed in a wide variety of contexts and with a substantial degree of personal responsibility and autonomy. Responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources is often present.	• knowledge of the underlying concepts and principles associated with their area(s) of study, and an ability to evaluate and interpret these within the context of that area of study • an ability to present, evaluate and interpret qualitative and quantitative data, in order to develop lines of argument and make sound judgements in accordance with basic theories and concepts of their subject(s) of study. • evaluate the appropriateness of different approaches to solving problems related to their area(s) of study and/or work • communicate the results of their study/work accurately and reliably, and with structured and coherent arguments • undertake further training and develop new skills within a structured and managed environment.
Level 5 **(HVET level 2)**	Competence, which involves the application of knowledge and skills, and a significant range of fundamental principles, across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts. Very substantial personal autonomy and often significant	• knowledge and critical understanding of the well-established principles of their area(s) of study, and of the way in which those principles have developed • ability to apply underlying concepts and principles outside the context in which

Levels	NVQs Descriptors	HE Level Descriptors
	responsibility for the work of others and for the allocation of substantial resources feature strongly as do personal accountabilities for analysis and diagnosis, design, planning, execution and evaluation.	they were first studied, including, where appropriate, the application of those principles in an employment context • knowledge of the main methods of enquiry in the subject(s) relevant to the named award, and ability to evaluate critically the appropriateness of different approaches to solving problems in the field of study • an understanding of the limits of their knowledge, and how this influences analyses and interpretations based on that knowledge.
Level 6 **(HVET level 3)**	[redacted]	• a systematic understanding of key aspects of their field of study, including acquisition of coherent and detailed knowledge, at least some of which is at, or informed by, the forefront of defined aspects of a discipline • an ability to deploy accurately established techniques of analysis and enquiry within a discipline • conceptual understanding that enables the student: ○ to devise and sustain arguments, and/or to solve problems, using ideas and techniques, some of which are at the forefront of a discipline ○ to describe and comment upon particular aspects of current research, or equivalent advanced scholarship, in the discipline • an appreciation of the uncertainty, ambiguity and limits of knowledge • the ability to manage their own learning, and to make use of scholarly reviews and primary sources (for example, refereed research articles and/or original materials appropriate to the discipline).

Table D-0-12: NVQ Levels of Competence v. HE Level Descriptors (QAA)

Level	Summary	Knowledge and understanding	Application and action	Autonomy and accountability
Entry level	**Entry 1 recognises progress along a continuum that ranges from the most elementary of achievements to beginning to make use of skills, knowledge or understanding that relate to the immediate environment.**			
	Achievement at Entry 2 reflects the ability to make use of skills, knowledge and understanding to carry out simple, familiar tasks and activities with guidance.	Use knowledge or understanding to carry out simple, familiar activities Know the steps needed to complete simple activities	Carry out simple, familiar tasks and activities Follow instructions or use rehearsed steps to complete tasks and activities	With appropriate guidance begin to take some responsibility for the outcomes of simple activities Actively participate in simple and familiar activities
	Achievement at Entry 3 reflects the ability to make use of skills, knowledge and understanding to carry out structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts, with appropriate guidance where needed.	Use knowledge or understanding to carry out structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts Know and understand the steps needed to complete structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts	Carry out structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts Be aware of the consequences of actions for self and others	With appropriate guidance take responsibility for the outcomes of structured activities Actively participate in activities in familiar contexts
Level 1	Achievement at level 1 reflects the ability to use relevant knowledge, skills and procedures to complete routine tasks. It includes responsibility for completing tasks and procedures subject to direction or guidance.	Use knowledge of facts, procedures and ideas to complete well-defined, routine tasks Be aware of information relevant to the area of study or work	Complete well-defined routine tasks Use relevant skills and procedures Select and use relevant information Identify whether actions have been effective	Take responsibility for completing tasks and procedures subject to direction or guidance as needed

Level	Summary	Knowledge and understanding	Application and action	Autonomy and accountability
Level 2	Achievement at level 2 reflects the ability to select and use relevant knowledge, ideas, skills and procedures to complete well-defined tasks and address straightforward problems. It includes taking responsibility for completing tasks and procedures and exercising autonomy and judgement subject to overall direction or guidance.	Use understanding of facts, procedures and ideas to complete well-defined tasks and address straightforward problems Interpret relevant information and ideas Be aware of the types of information that are relevant to the area of study or work	Complete well-defined, generally routine tasks and address straightforward problems Select and use relevant skills and procedures Identify, gather and use relevant information to inform actions Identify how effective actions have been	Take responsibility for completing tasks and procedures Exercise autonomy and judgement subject to overall direction or guidance
Level 3	Achievement at level 3 reflects the ability to identify and use relevant understanding, methods and skills to complete tasks and address problems that, while well defined, have a measure of complexity. It includes taking responsibility for initiating and completing tasks and procedures as well as exercising autonomy and judgement within limited parameters. It also reflects awareness of different perspectives or approaches within an area of study or work.	Use factual, procedural and theoretical understanding to complete tasks and address problems that, while well defined, may be complex and non-routine Interpret and evaluate relevant information and ideas Be aware of the nature of the area of study or work Have awareness of different perspectives or approaches within the area of study or work	Address problems that, while well defined, may be complex and non-routine Identify, select and use appropriate skills, methods and procedures Use appropriate investigation to inform actions Review how effective methods and actions have been	Take responsibility for initiating and completing tasks and procedures, including, where relevant, responsibility for supervising or guiding others Exercise autonomy and judgement within limited parameters

Level	Summary	Knowledge and understanding	Application and action	Autonomy and accountability
Level 4	Achievement at level 4 reflects the ability to identify and use relevant understanding, methods and skills to address problems that are well defined but complex and non-routine. It includes taking responsibility for overall courses of action as well as exercising autonomy and judgement within fairly broad parameters. It also reflects understanding of different perspectives or approaches within an area of study or work.	Use practical, theoretical or technical understanding to address problems that are well defined but complex and non-routine Analyse, interpret and evaluate relevant information and ideas Be aware of the nature and approximate scope of the area of study or work Have an informed awareness of different perspectives or approaches within the area of study or work	Address problems that are complex and non-routine while normally fairly well defined Identify, adapt and use appropriate methods and skills Initiate and use appropriate investigation to inform actions Review the effectiveness and appropriateness of methods, actions and results	Take responsibility for courses of action, including, where relevant, responsibility for the work of others Exercise autonomy and judgement within broad but generally well-defined parameters
Level 5	Achievement at level 5 reflects the ability to identify and use relevant understanding, methods and skills to address broadly-defined, complex problems. It includes taking responsibility for planning and developing courses of action as well as exercising autonomy and judgement within broad parameters. It also reflects understanding of different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the reasoning behind them.	Use practical, theoretical or technological understanding to find ways forward in broadly-defined, complex contexts Analyse, interpret and evaluate relevant information, concepts and ideas Be aware of the nature and scope of the area of study or work Understand different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the reasoning behind them	Address broadly-defined, complex problems Determine, adapt and use appropriate methods and skills Use relevant research or development to inform actions Evaluate actions, methods and results	Take responsibility for planning and developing courses of action, including, where relevant, responsibility for the work of others Exercise autonomy and judgement within broad parameters

Level	Summary	Knowledge and understanding	Application and action	Autonomy and accountability
Level 6	Achievement at level 6 reflects the ability to refine and use relevant understanding, methods and skills to address complex problems that have limited definition. It includes taking responsibility for planning and developing courses of action that are able to underpin substantial change or development, as well as exercising broad autonomy and judgement. It also reflects an understanding of different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the theories that underpin them.	Refine and use practical, conceptual or technological understanding to create ways forward in contexts where there are many interacting factors Critically analyse, interpret and evaluate complex information, concepts and ideas Understand the context in which the area of study or work is located Be aware of current developments in the area of study or work Understand different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the theories that underpin them	Address problems that have limited definition and involve many interacting factors Determine, refine, adapt and use appropriate methods and skills Use and, where appropriate, design relevant research and development to inform actions Evaluate actions, methods and results and their implications	Take responsibility for planning and developing courses of action that are capable of underpinning substantial changes or developments Initiate and lead tasks and processes, taking responsibility, where relevant, for the work and roles of others Exercise broad autonomy and judgement

Table D-0-13: The Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF) level descriptors from Entry level to Level 6 (Ofqual 2008:46-51)

	Level Knowledge descriptor (the holder...)	Skills descriptor (the holder can...)
Entry 1	Progresses along a continuum that ranges from the most elementary of achievements to beginning to make use of knowledge and/or understanding that relate to the subject or immediate environment.	Progress along a continuum that ranges from the most elementary of achievements to beginning to make use of skills that relate to the subject or the immediate environment.
Entry 2	Has basic knowledge or understanding of a subject and/or can carry out simple, familiar tasks; and Knows the steps needed to complete simple activities.	Carry out simple, familiar tasks and activities. Follow instructions or use rehearsed steps to complete tasks and activities.
Entry 3	Has basic knowledge and understanding to carry out structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts; and Knows and understands the steps needed to complete structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts.	Carry out structured tasks and activities in familiar contexts. Be aware of the consequences of actions for self and others.
L1	Has basic factual knowledge of a subject and/or knowledge of facts, procedures and ideas to complete well-defined routine tasks and address simple problems; and Is aware of aspects of information relevant to the area of study or work.	Use basic cognitive and practical skills to complete well-defined routine tasks and procedures. Select and use relevant information. Identify whether actions have been effective.
L2	Has knowledge and understanding of facts, procedures and ideas in an area of study or field of work to complete well-defined tasks and address straightforward problems. Can interpret relevant information and ideas. Is aware of a range of information that is relevant to the area of study or work.	Select and use relevant cognitive and practical skills to complete well-defined, generally routine tasks and address straightforward problems. Identify, gather and use relevant information to inform actions. Identify how effective actions have been.
L3	Has factual, procedural and theoretical knowledge and understanding of a subject or field of work to complete tasks and address problems that while well-defined, may be complex and non-routine. Can interpret and evaluate relevant information and ideas. Is aware of the nature of the area of study or work. Is aware of different perspectives or approaches within the area of study or work.	Identify, select and use appropriate cognitive and practical skills, methods and procedures to address problems that while well-defined, may be complex and non-routine. Use appropriate investigation to inform actions. Review how effective methods and actions have been.
L4	Has practical, theoretical or technical knowledge and understanding of a subject or field of work to address problems that are well defined but complex and non-routine. Can analyse, interpret and evaluate relevant information and ideas. Is aware of the nature of approximate scope of the area of study or work. Has an informed awareness of different perspectives or approaches within the area of study or work.	Identify, adapt and use appropriate cognitive and practical skills to inform actions and address problems that are complex and non-routine while normally fairly well-defined. Review the effectiveness and appropriateness of methods, actions and results.
L5	Has practical, theoretical or technological knowledge and understanding of a subject or field of work to find ways forward in broadly defined, complex contexts. Can analyse, interpret and evaluate relevant information, concepts and ideas. Is aware of the nature and scope of the area of study or work. Understands different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the reasoning behind them.	Determine, adapt and use appropriate methods, cognitive and practical skills to address broadly defined, complex problems. Use relevant research or development to inform actions. Evaluate actions, methods and results.
L6	Has advanced practical, conceptual or technological knowledge and understanding of a subject or field of work to create ways forward in contexts where there are many interacting factors. Understands different perspectives, approaches or schools of thought and the theories that underpin them. Can critically analyse, interpret and evaluate complex information, concepts and ideas.	Determine, refine, adapt and use appropriate methods and advanced cognitive and practical skills to address problems that have limited definition and involve many interacting factors. Use and, where appropriate, design relevant research and development to inform actions. Evaluate actions, methods and results and their implications.

Table D-0-14: Regulated Qualification Framework (RQF) from Entry level to Level 6
(Ofqual 2015:5-9)

Because the related beauty programmes are mainly developed up to degree level, so level descriptors only display up to Level 6. The Qualifications and Credit Framework (QCF) level descriptors is shown in Table D-0-13. It can be compared against the new qualification structure of the Regulated Qualification Framework (RQF) in Table D-0-14. There is no much different between QCF and RQF.

Appendix E: Analysis of Observations at workplaces in Taiwan

The environment of the four observations is very different from one to another. Obs1 is at a beauty counter set in a retail shop that has been in the business for more than forty years. The couches in the treatment area were located at an open environment of the shop by the beauty counter. There was a beautician, who was employed by the cosmetic company, and the owner, who has been also trained as a beautician and make-up artist.

Also, the family members were also having activities in part of the premises. The beautician had sometimes to sell the products by the counter when other customers walked in, so the treatment was interrupted. Thus, the atmosphere could be busy, noisy and without privacy at all. The owner of Obs1 responded that:

> "*My clientele are the people living locally and we all know each other well…just like friends. They would not mind that the service was carried out at the environment where it is open and noisy because they feel as safe as they were at home."* She also said that "*If the customers liked to have their treatment done somewhere quiet and private, they would not come here in the first place.*"

Obs2 was a place which belonged to one of the salon chains. The environment is quiet and private, but the atmosphere was not warm and welcoming. They only accept bookings, so the room seemed prepared for a facial treatment. The client was a returned client and seemed to have a close relationship with the beauty practitioner. It can also be seen that the client was familiar with the service routine. The beauty practitioner wore a casual loosened sporty outfit and she explained that it was their uniform when performing treatment as it was more comfortable. The treatment was carried out straightaway after the client's arrival. The beauty practitioner quietly talked to the client and briefly explained the procedure while she was cleansing her face. The service was less than an hour. Once the treatment was completed, the practitioners and the client sat down on a small round table by the entrance. The beauty practitioner

had a small consultation with the client, record the treatment and book a future treatment. The client said that she would not mind when the consultation was carried out (the questions related to usual beauty routine, etc., which would usually be asked at the beginning), as long as it could save her time.

Obs3 was a home-based environment. The practitioner rented an extra floor on the top floor, which was an illegal construction. The working environment is very simple with a couch set in the corner of the room. The simplicity can be seen in that she only provides a treatment, but is not selling the experience. The practitioner only accepts bookings from the people she is familiar with due to the safety consideration. The treatment was performed in a simple way but maintained a certain quality due to the practitioner's standard. She said that:

> "*I tended to educate my client to follow my service procedure. For example, I insist that my client had to get changed… and I would keep quiet during the service, so my client could have a proper rest… Some of my clients prefer that I get straight to the service.*"

Obs4 is a Spa for aromatherapy treatment. The Spa was located on a narrowed street in Taipei. The basement is with a glass wall and a decoration of green plants. The environment creates a peaceful and elegant atmosphere. The light was dim and soft in the communal area with a receptionist working there in the late afternoon. The room was full of aroma. Unfortunately, they changed their mind about permitting observation in the treatment room, due to the client's privacy, but it was allowed to observe before and after the treatment. Even though the researcher requested to observe if a client who would give the consent could be found, it was still refused. The client was a returned client and from their conversation it could be seen that they had a good relationship as the client asked quite a few questions regarding her condition and expected some advice from the therapist. Their voices were very quiet and soft.

The observation checklist below (see Table E-0-15) was extracted from UK's NOS. Those elements have been embedded in the UK's educational and training structure. This checklist was developed as a benchmark against the

observations at workplaces in Taiwan. Carrying out treatments is the main task as a beauty practitioner/professional: therefore, the checklist contains three phases - before, during and after the treatment. The first phase, before treatment, focuses on preparation and consultation. The second phase is mainly about performing the treatment(s), which could be various types of applications; thus, the details are difficult to identify. For example, the criteria for a facial treatment will be different to a body electrical treatment. The last phase, after treatment, emphasises the advice given and evaluation. In the UK, there are various legislation, regulations and codes of practice to comply with to meet health and safety and industrial hygienic working practice.

The before treatment stage included possible pre-treatment advice, preparation, consultation and analysis. Because all the clients were returned clients, the checklist was not fully achieved for this stage. Some of the components may be missed out or simplified as returned clients normally have previous experiences on preparing themselves for treatment unless the treatment has changed. In Taiwan, it is very common that clients buy a package of the same treatments, for example, ten facial treatments, so the treatment is less flexible to be changed.

For Obs1, in particular, the treatments would be according to the products the customers have bought. For instance, if the customer bought a body cream, the customer might have body treatment occasionally. In other words, the treatment decision is based on what products to consume rather than what the customer actually needed for the treatment. It was observed that the customer was pushed to buy the specific product of the month that was targeted by the cosmetic company even though the customer may not necessarily need it.

A proper consultation was not observed. Obs4 had an update briefly with the returned client, but not a proper consultation. For example, contra-indication checks and update of information regarding any changes in daily life was not given, although this is important as these conditions could possibly change

from time to time. The rest of them just went straight to the application of treatment.

Do: 👍 Partly done: ☝ Did not do: 👎 N/A: ✋ Cannot be observed: 👈

	Before treatment	Obs1	Obs2	Obs3	Obs4	Comments
1	Pre-treatment advice	👈	👈	👈	👈	
2	Patch test/sensitivity test/compatibility test	✋	✋	✋	✋	None of the treatments required a patch test.
3	Environmental check (ventilation, lighting, temperature, aroma, level of noise)	👎	👎	☝	👍	
4	Professional images (including personal appearance and hygiene etc.)	☝	☝	👍	👍	Not sure Obs2's uniform for practice.
5	All tools and equipment must be cleaned and sanitised between uses.	👎	👎	👎	✋	Obs4 no tools and equipment involved.
6	All necessary tools, equipment and products should be set up just prior to proceeding with the treatment.	👍	👍	👍	👍	
7	Towels or other types of linen used for covering or protection during the procedure must be clean at the start of each treatment.	☝	☝	👍	👍	
8	Introduce/greet client and establish a rapport with the client and put the client at ease	👍	👍	👍	👍	
9	Develop mutual trust and gain the client's confidence	👍	👍	👍	👍	
10	Consultation					
	• Fill out/update client record card and consultation card	👎	👎	👎	👍	Obs4 briefly updated the client record card
	• Identify contra-indication and allergies	👎	👎	👎	👎	
	• Previous experiences and treatment outcomes from the past	👎	👎	👎	👎	
	• Record personal, medical and lifestyle factors	👎	👎	👎	👎	
	• Assess skin/body condition	👎	👎	👎	👎	
	• Establish and discuss the most appropriate form of treatment	👎	☝	👎	👎	Obs2 the therapist was discussing the treatment during the treatment process.
	• Explain treatment procedure, expected effects, timing and frequency	👎	👎	👎	👎	
	• Agree a treatment plan, timing and cost	👎	👎	👎	👎	
	• Allow the client to ask questions	👎	👎	👎	👎	
11	Advise client to prepare herself/himself for the treatment and positioning the client	☝	☝	👍	👍	
12	Sensitivity test	✋	✋	✋	✋	There is no treatment needed to test warm, cold, sharp and blunt.
13	Protect client hair, cloth and/or body	👍	👍	👍	👍	
14	Wash hands before and after attending a client	👎	👍	👍	👍	
15	Clean the skin from make-up and/or grease	👍	👍	👍	👍	
16	Analyse skin through a magnifying lamp	👎	👎	👎	✋	Obs4 was a full body treatment, no need for this step.

Do: 👍 Partly done: ☝ Did not do: 👎 N/A: ✋ Cannot be observed: 👈

Table E-0-15: Observation checklist of before treatment

	During treatment	Obs1	Obs2	Obs3	Obs4	Comments
1	Position client and professional him/herself correctly	👍	👍	👍	👍	
2	Practitioners should wash their hands if a procedure is interrupted.	👎	🖐	🖐	🖐	The treatments at Obs2, 3 and 4 have not been interrupted.
3	Use spatula to remove products	👎	👎	👎	🖐	
4	Check client's comfort	👍	👍	👍	👍	
5	Be on the alert for any possible contra-actions	👎	👎	👎	👎	
6	Completed within agreement time and cost effective	👍	👍	👍	👍	
7	Keep industrial hygienic working practice	👎	👎	👎	👍	
8	Decide the sequence of the treatments	🖐	🖐	🖐	🖐	Only if they have more than one treatment would it be necessary to plan the sequence.
9	Modify the treatment when necessary	🖐	🖐	🖐	🖐	
10	Take possible action when diverse skin reactions occurred	👈	👈	👈	👈	

Do: 👍 Partly done: ☝ Did not do: 👎 N/A: 🖐 Cannot be observed: 👈

Table E-0-16: Observation checklist of during treatment

Obs1, 2 and 3 were facial treatments and Obs4 was a body treatment. None of them has involved more than one treatment. Therefore, there is no sequence of the treatments involved.

The majority of them have not met the standard of industry hygienic working practice although there is no explicit standard that has been established in Taiwan. For example, none of the therapists used tools to remove products from the containers. The treatment was aromatherapy at Obs4, so they removed oil from the bottle. In addition, the therapist from Obs1 did not wash her hands after an interruption from the treatment and so forth. These should be a common sense hygienic practice.

Obs1 had an extra free service of shaping client's eyebrows using razor blade that could irritate the skin surrounding the eyebrows, as the skin would be sensitive after a facial. The therapist of Obs1 explained that "*The customers liked to have their eyebrows shaped before or after the treatment, so that they could have two things done in one go.*" Clearly, they did not explain the possible consequence to the customer. In addition, each customer has to buy

their own razor blade with their name on the cover, which was kept by the owner. More importantly, she admitted that the razor blade was never sterilised before and after use. It would be disposed of once it was no longer sharp. This case shows that health and safety was neglected because of ignorance.

Obs2 was found that the treatment started without consultation and the therapist explained the treatment while performing the treatment. The therapist sat the customer down after the treatment to fill out the record and to book a date for further treatment. However, the customer did not seem to mind that the treatment was explained in the middle of the treatment or whether consultation was carried out or whether care advice was given. The customer noted that *"I would not mind whether any of them was carried out as it saved me more time."* Although carrying out consultation and giving care advice could take longer time for the customer, the process could be simplified for a returned customer. The response does not suggest that they do not care, but they have not experienced what the treatment should be and have not been told what the risks might be. The returned customer in Obs4 asked some questions regarding her health condition and sought for advice on the oil, so the therapist did answer the client inquiry instead of giving care advice regarding the treatment.

Obs1 and Obs2 was product selling oriented, so the therapists checked whether the customers need to purchase products for use at home or for storage and use in the salon. Whereas, the other two were more service-oriented, so the atmosphere at the end of service was more relaxing. It is understandable as the therapists of Obs1 and Obs2 were employed, so that they have a target to achieve every month. Obs3 is a freelancer, so she did not have a pressure of performance and Obs4 has no target to meet. The therapist at Obs4 emphasised that they will not have more than three bookings a day. The reason for the restriction is to protect the therapists from the risk of repetitive strain injury. It can be seen that the style of business all depends on the corporate culture. The employees' health and welfare was well looked after, so

they could offer a good quality of treatment. Overall, Obs4 met the majority of the criteria.

	After treatment	Obs1	Obs2	Obs3	Obs4	Comments
1	Record treatment details and the results of the feedback	👎	☝	👎	☝	Partly done because they only record the treatment not the feedback.
2	Assess the effectiveness and analyse the results of the treatment	👍	👍	👍	👍	Passed clients the mirror to check on the outcome of the treatment.
3	Give aftercare and homecare advice as appropriate	👎	👎	👎	☝	Obs4 gave advice to answer the client's inquiry not relating to the treatment.
4	Recommend retail products to reinforce the effectiveness of the treatment	👍	👍	🖐	☝	
5	Discuss and explain any possible changes for future treatment	👎	👎	👎	👎	
6	Book further treatment	👎	👍	👎	👍	
7	Waste must be disposed correctly after use.	🖐	🖐	🖐	🖐	
8	Tools and equipment must be cleaned after the procedure	☝	☝	☝	🖐	Obs4 did not use any tools and equipment
9	Self-evaluation and reflection	👎	👎	👎	👎	

Do: 👍 Partly done: ☝ Did not do: 👎 N/A: 🖐 Cannot be observed: 👈

Table E-0-17: Observation checklist of after treatment

Apart from service procedure, professional image was also observed as it represents the image of the corporation and the style of individual's professionalism, especially in the service of aesthetics. Professional appearance is defined related to professionals' hair, nails, jewellery, shoes and uniforms (HABIA 2005). In the UK, the professional image is requested by the codes of practice and needs to comply with the industrial hygienic working practice.

In Taiwan, there is no specific uniform or style for beauty practitioners/professionals. The professional image also depends on the job role and the work content involved. There are no codes of practice set for practitioners/professionals. Therefore, it all depends on the employers or organisations. Some particular cosmetic companies have strong brand image, so they changed uniform every a couple of years and have their own code of conduct, for instance, for Obs1. Hair up and minimum jewellery seem to be a universal rule as it is more hygienic while working on customers. The others just wore something plain and comfortable for work, with no specific requirement on the professional image.

It is also important to note that the initial approach of observation evolved from filming to taking notes, as it was found that the participants appeared to be behaving unnaturally while video recording. In addition, the company's manager (IE08) was concerned that the footage may involve commercial value and business confidentiality even though the consent form was signed.

Appendix F: First stage of competence analysis from Educational and Industrial Experts in Taiwan

F-1: A comparison of competence for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts

In this section the ranking of competence allows interviewees to score the components on the list and to add any component that was missing from the list. The scale was one to three. One is the most important and three was the least important. To compare the score from a comparison of competence requirement for FE and HVET beauty graduates, see Tables and Figure below.

From Table F1-0-18, it can be seen that IEs require more competence from HVET beauty graduates. Both understanding of underlying concepts, principles and theories of the discipline and applications of knowledge to practical situations are required for both FE and HVET graduates. The most important component for HVET graduates is a broader knowledge, especially involving research and development of professional expertise. IE01 has added the knowledge of health and safety, First Aid and given a score of 2 and 2 for FE graduates and 3 and 3 for HVET graduates respectively. However, the IEs do expect HVET graduates to bring some innovative ideas to the organisation. The component of 'Research' is the least requirement for both FE and HVET graduates.

No.		Components	FE	HVE
1	Knowledge	Understanding of underlying concepts, principles and theories of the discipline	**20**	21
2		Theoretical knowledge (e.g. physiology, medics, procedures, lab work, tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	17	21
3		Breadth of knowledge (a wide range of knowledge)	**18**	**23**
4		Depth of knowledge (in-depth knowledge)	**18**	**22**
5		Application of knowledge to practical situations	**20**	**22**
6		Updating and developing professional knowledge and expertise	16	**22**
7		Research	**13**	**20**
	Other, please specify:			

Table F1-0-18: A comparison of knowledge required for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts (IEs)[38]

The star diagram above shows that IEs require more from HVET graduates than FE even though their performance does not make much difference. IE01 has added the knowledge of health and safety, First Aid and given a score of 2 and 2 for FE graduates and 3 and 3 for HVET graduates respectively. They are considered to be in the category of theoretical knowledge.

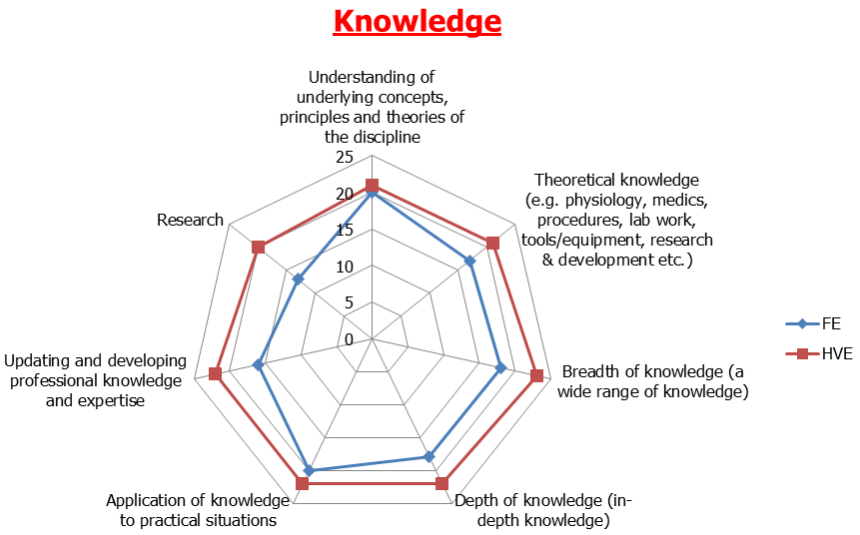


Figure F1-0-1: A comparison of skills required for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts (IEs)

[38] **Red bold** colour indicates the most important components; **Blue bold** colour means the second important components; **Green bold** colour illustrates the least important components.

Both Table F1-0-18/Figure F1-0-1 shown below presents that the match score for both FE and HVET graduates is selling skill. In other words, it does not matter what qualification have the graduates had, being able to sell the products/treatment is the most important criteria. Additionally, there are another four components such as interactive/interpersonal, collecting and analysing data/information, professional development/life-long lerning and team working are as important as selling skill for HVET beauty graduates. There are only some skills that industrial experts required with not much difference between FE and HVET graduates but with a high score to show its importance. These are sales skills, ethical judgement and team work, followed by self-management and communication skill. However, the least important for both categories is 'Ability to manage others'. Again, overall, there is a higher requirement in Skills for HVET graduates than FE's. There was only IE2 who scored the components of skills required for FE and HVET beauty graduates all exactly the same.

The diagram below shows that industrial experts have overall higher requirements for HE beauty graduates than FE's. Industrial experts require HVET graduates to be strong on the particular attributes such as being self-directed and having initiative. The most important component 'Work ethics' and 'Positive attitude to work' is considered as important for both FE and HVET graduates. The least important component 'Decisiveness' are scored for both FE and HVET graduates.

No.		Components	FE	HVE
1		Communication: Oral, written, questioning and listening	19	22
2		Business acumen and awareness	11	18
3		Ethical judgement	21	22
4		Interactive / Interpersonal	21	23
5		Sale	23	23
6		Leadership	10	17
7		Consultation	16	22
8		Developing / Maintaining professional contacts & networks	14	18
9		Computer skills	14	20
10		Collecting and analysing data / information	14	23
11		Numeracy / Data handling	14	18
12	**Skills**	Planning /Organisation	11	20
13		Problem-solving /Analytical	16	22
14		Professional development /Life-long learning	18	23
15		Self-management (e.g. Time management, work independently, self-discipline, spontaneous)	20	22
16		Ability to manage others	10	17
17		Team-working	21	23
18		Technical skills (e.g. application to technical procedures, use of tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	18	22
19		Bi / Multi-lingual skill	11	17
20		Perceptiveness and responsiveness	17	20
21		Aesthetic and Design	19	22
	Other, please specify:			

Table F1-0-19: The score of skills required for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts (IEs)

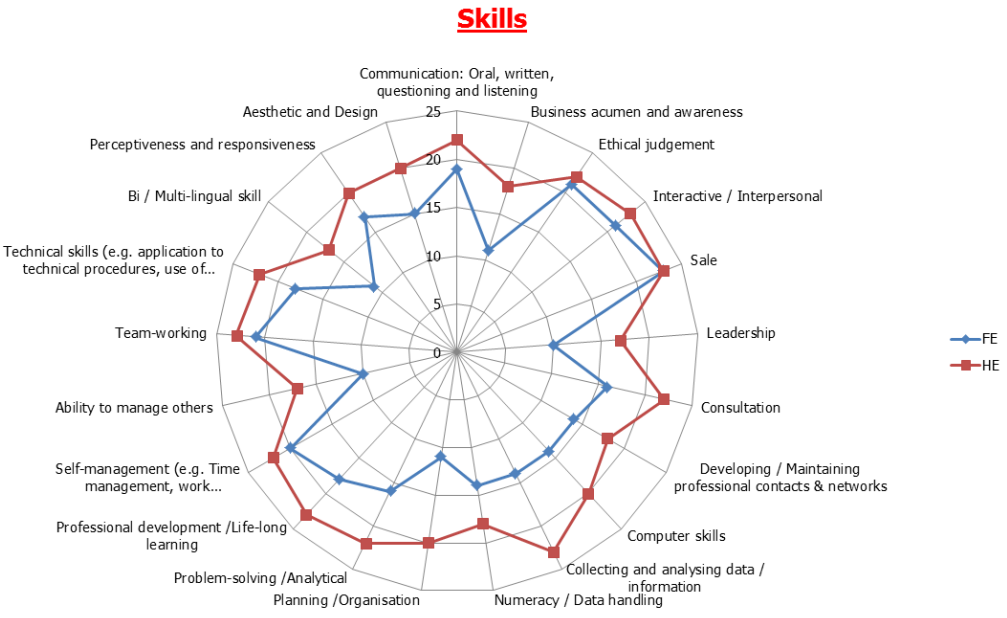


Figure F1-0-2: A comparison of skills required for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts (IEs)

These qualities are recognised to be attributes needed regardless of the level of education and professionalism. The score appeared the largest gap falls on ‘self-motivation’. Compared with knowledge and skills, required attributes have the most overlapped components between FE and HVET beauty graduates. The components shared the same score, apart from work ethics, include attention to detail, honesty/integrity and time keeping/punctuality. These qualities are recognised to be attributes needed regardless of the level of education and professionalism. IE4 ticked all the same between FE and HVET beauty graduates. IE4 claims that both FE and HVET beauty graduates' performance were practically the same at the level of ‘fair’ presentation (See Table 5-18 in Section 5.3.3.1.4). Both IE2 and IE4 have added on the category of attribute ‘empathy’.

No.		Components	FE	HVE
1	Attributes	Adaptability	19	20
		Attention to detail	20	20
2		Commitment	16	18
3		Cooperation with others	15	19
5		Creativity / Imagination	17	20
6		Decisiveness	9	16
7		Dependability /Responsibility	19	23
8		Honesty / Integrity	22	22
9		Initiative / Proactive	19	23
10		Positive attitude to work	23	24
11		Self-motivation	13	23
12		Self-awareness	18	22
13		Timekeeping /Punctually	22	22
14		Stress / Emotional management	19	22
15		Drive to learn	22	23
16		Caring attitude	21	22
17		Work ethics	24	24
	Other, please specify:			

Table F1-0-20: The score of attributes required for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts (IEs)

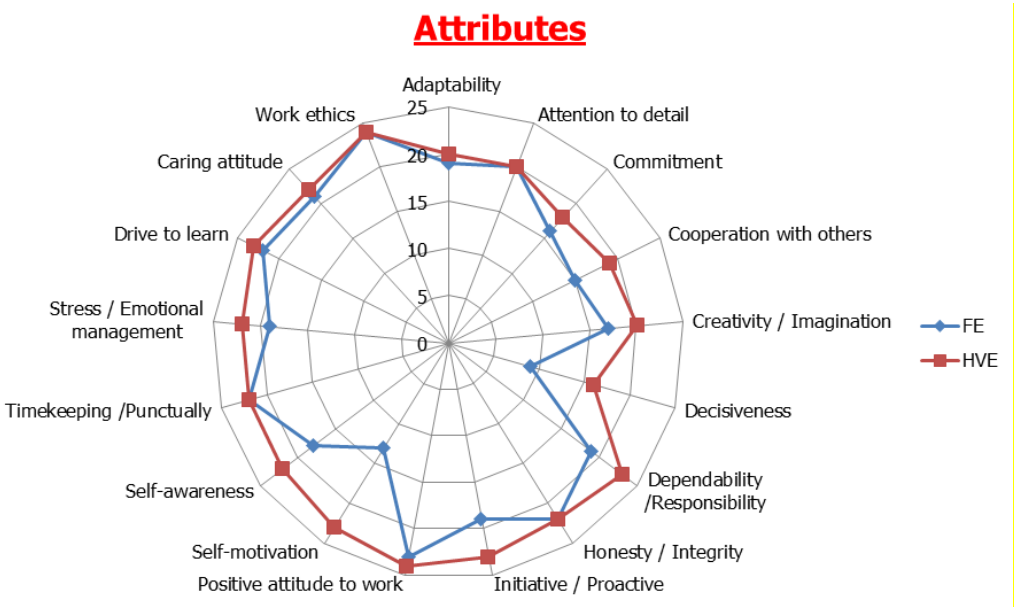


Figure F1-0-3: A comparison of attributes required for FE and HVET beauty graduates from industrial experts (IEs)

F-2: A comparison of competence for HVET beauty graduates from educational and industrial experts

No.		Components	EE	IE
1	Knowledge	Understanding of underlying concepts, principles and theories of the discipline	22	21
2		Theoretical knowledge (e.g. physiology, medics, procedures, lab work, tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	23	21
3		Breadth of knowledge (a wide range of knowledge)	24	23
4		Depth of knowledge (in-depth knowledge)	24	22
5		Application of knowledge to practical situations	24	22
6		Updating and developing professional knowledge and expertise	21	22
7		Research	19	20
	Other, please specify:			

Table F2-0-21: The score of knowledge expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the first stage of interview

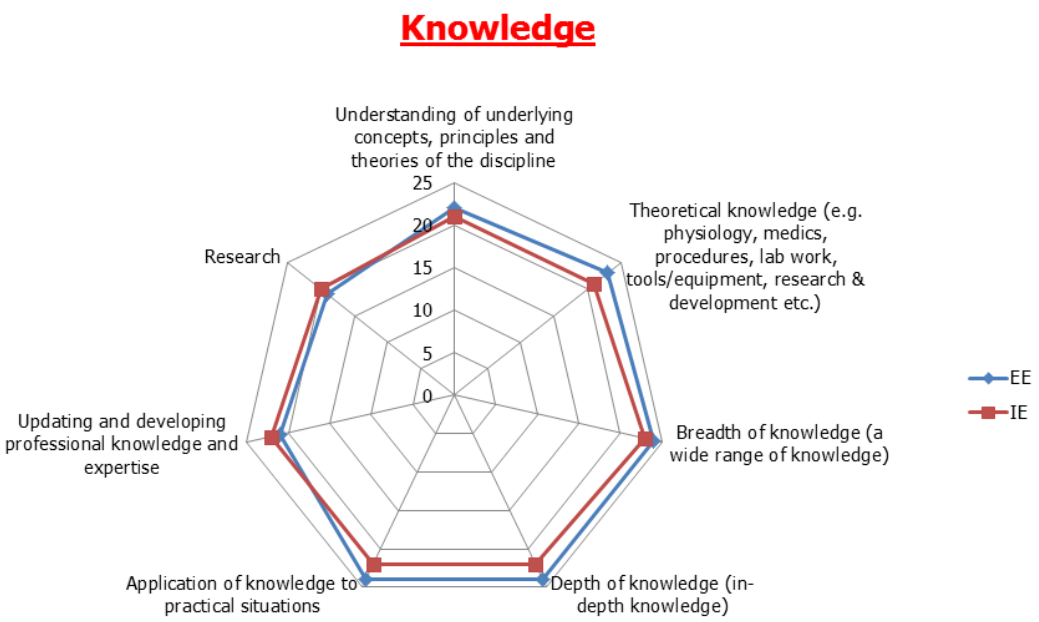


Figure F2-0-4: A comparison of knowledge expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the first stage of interview

The ranking of competences expected from Educational Experts (EEs) and required from Industrial Experts (IEs) obtained at the second stage of interview was compared in this section. From Table F2-0-21/Figure F2-0-4, the

expectation from EEs and requirements from IEs are not so much different in terms of knowledge overall. It is worth highlighting that EEs and IEs placed the most important component 'breadth of knowledge' and least important component 'Research' comparatively the same although EEs consider 'Depth of knowledge' and 'Application of knowledge to practical situations' are as important as equip 'Breadth of knowledge'. From Figure F2-0-4, it can be seen that there is no much difference between EEs and IEs.

The difference between expected skills from EEs and the required skills from IEs appears slightly different in order (see Table F2-0-22/Figure F2-0-5). The highest score from industry is the skill of selling products/treatments: whereas, the most important component identified from educational experts are technical skills, consultation, problem-solving /analytical skills, which were not considered to be the priority for the industry. Bi/multi lingual skill is considered to be the least important by experts from both sectors. However, interpersonal skill and Professional development /Life-long learning are equally important to both sectors.

For the EEs at the first stage of interview, three important skills were identified, which are technical skills, consultation and problem-solving/analytical skill. However, some industrial experts considered that the beauty practitioners lack consultation skills.

No.		Components	EE	IE
1	Skills	Communication: Oral, written, questioning and listening	22	22
2		Business acumen and awareness	21	18
3		Ethical judgement	**23**	22
4		Interactive / Interpersonal	**23**	**23**
5		Sale	22	**24**
6		Leadership	19	**17**
7		Consultation	**24**	22
8		Developing / Maintaining professional contacts & networks	20	18
9		Computer skills	**17**	20
10		Collecting and analysing data / information	22	**23**
11		Numeracy / Data handling	19	18
12		Planning /Organisation	21	20
13		Problem-solving /Analytical	**24**	22
14		Professional development /Life-long learning	**23**	**23**
15		Self-management (e.g. Time management, work independently, self-discipline, spontaneous)	**23**	22
16		Ability to manage others	19	**17**
17		Team-working	21	**23**
18		Technical skills (e.g. application to technical procedures, use of tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	**24**	22
19		Bi / Multi-lingual skill	**17**	**17**
20		Perceptiveness and responsiveness	**23**	20
21		Aesthetic and Design	22	20
	Other, please specify:			

Table F2-0-22: The score of skills expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the first stage of interview

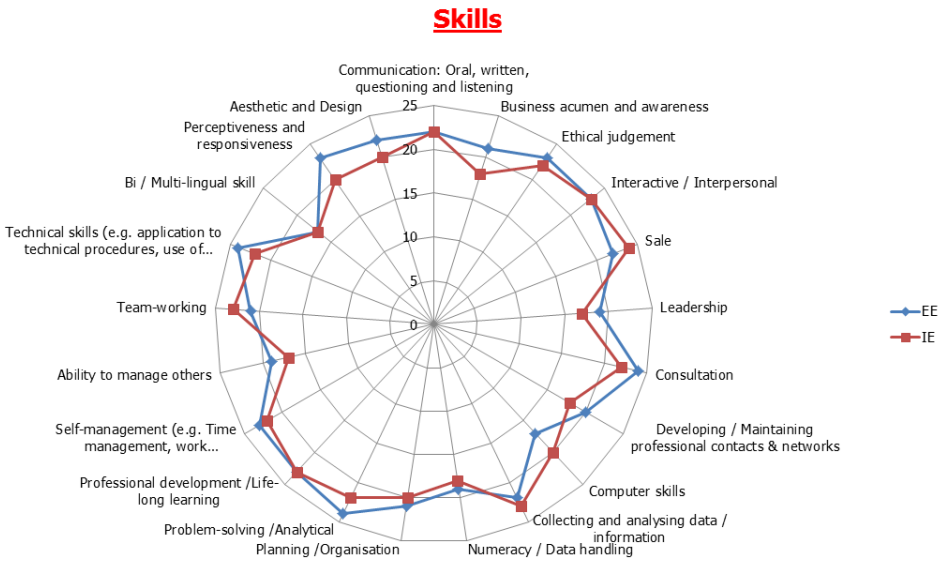


Figure F2-0-5: A comparison of skills expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the first stage of interview

As shown in Table F2-0-23/Figure F2-0-6, 'positive attitude to work' and 'work ethics' were scored the highest and 'decisiveness' was the lowest by both groups of experts spontaneously. The reason for considering decisiveness again the least important is because, according to the industrial experts, they prefer that the practitioners consult with the manager or owner and not to make a decision themselves.

No.		Components	EE	IE
1	Attributes	Adaptability	23	20
2		Attention to detail	22	20
3		Commitment	22	18
4		Cooperation with others	20	19
5		Creativity / Imagination	19	20
6		Decisiveness	18	16
7		Dependability /Responsibility	24	23
8		Honesty / Integrity	24	22
9		Initiative / Proactive	23	23
10		Positive attitude to work	24	24
11		Self-motivation	22	23
12		Self-awareness	22	22
13		Timekeeping /Punctually	22	22
14		Stress / Emotional management	24	22
15		Drive to learn	22	23
16		Caring attitude	20	22
17		Work ethics	24	24
	Other, please specify:			

Table F2-0-23: The score of attributes expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the first stage of interview

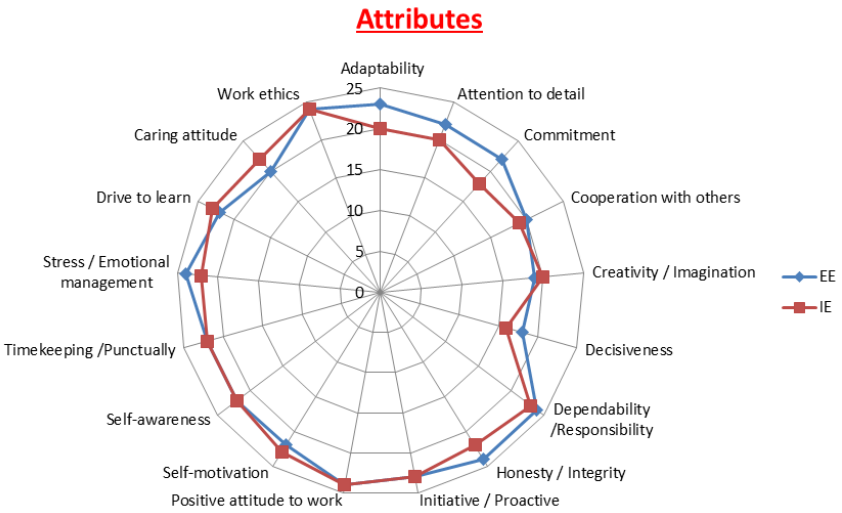


Figure F2-0-6: A comparison of attributes expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the first stage of interview

Appendix G: Second stage of competence analysis from Educational and Industrial Experts in Taiwan

G-1: Core competence for beauty professionals

This question was an open-ended question, set out to identify core competence for beauty professionals. The question was divided into three sub-questions: core knowledge, core attributes and core skills. The experts were asked to list three of each in sequence according to its importance. The first one on the list is the most important, so the third one is the least important. There was no reference list for them to choose from, so it relied on the interviewees' professional judgement.

From Table G1-0-24 and Table G1-0-25, it can be seen that the answers are very random, but 'passion', 'professional knowledge' and 'professional skills' are shown to be three most acknowledged core competence for beauty professionals. The consideration for identifying 'passion' as the most important core competence for beauty professionals is that a lot of problems can be solved with passion for the profession from the interviewees' point of view. It was agreed that the professionals will continuously improve, update and enhance their competence with the passion for the profession in their attributes.

	Knowledge	**Attributes**	**Skills**
EE01	Professional knowledge	Positive attitude	Professional skills
	Knowledge of customer service	Affinity	Body language
	Interpersonal skill	Modest/Humble	Customer service skill
EE07	The breadth and depth of technical knowledge	Self-direct learning	Ability to think and practice
	Able to acquire the updated information of industry	Integrity	Resourcefulness
	Aesthetics	Passion and Dedication	Technical skills
EE09	Professional knowledge	Dedicated attitude	Able to integrate Information Computer

	Knowledge	Attributes	Skills
			Technology (ICT) into the profession/marketing
	Principle of formative aesthetic	Passion of service	Able to integrate art and aesthetics into the profession
	The art of living	Caring	Creative and innovative capacity
EE10	Aesthetic design	Affinity	Analysis and consultation ability
	Industrial knowledge	The continued enthusiasm for the industry	Customer service
	The knowledge for analysing the trend	Marketing self and brand	Professional skills
EE11	Knowledge of consultation	Patient	Self-learning
	Knowledge of management and customer service	Persistence	Business insight
	Knowledge of marketing	Aesthetic sense	Acuity
EE12	Professional knowledge	social competence	Professional skills
	Aesthetics	Acuity	Social skill
	The knowledge of products and equipment	The joy of health and happiness	Creative thinking skill
EE13	Professional knowledge	Passion of service	Professional skills
	Aesthetics	Patient	Communication skill
		Empathy	
EE14	Professional knowledge	Attitude towards to the profession, people and things	Professional skills
	Work ethics	Acuity of aesthetics	Speaking, listening, reading and writing, computer skills
		The acuity and promptness towards the fashion trend	Professional skill license/certificate
EE15	Professional knowledge	Dedicated attitude	Professional skills
		Concern about health and maintain the beautiful mind and body	
		Passion for the profession	

Table G1-0-24: The list of core competences for beauty professionals suggested by the educational experts in Taiwan

	Knowledge	Attributes	Skills
IE01	Professional knowledge	Initiative	Communion/Consultation ability
	Knowledge of fashion trend	Affinity/Friendly/Approachable	Ability to attain information
	Relevant product knowledge	Able to obtain the trust of customers	Professional skills
IE02	Professional knowledge	Affinity/Friendly/Approachable	Communication skills
	Knowledge of communication	Positive attitude	Self-directed learning
	Knowledge relevant to medicine	Passion towards service	Professional skills
IE03	Awareness of problem skin regardless to any applications	Responsibility (from start to the care advice)	Techniques for make-up, skin and body care
	Holistic recommendations on not only for products, but also linking to lifestyle/diet	Patient (service, training and the details all take time, so being patient is important)	Able to operate equipment and perform the procedure
	Able to understand and explain the mechanism of the product ingredients	Passion (can resolve all the problems)	Able to design a customised treatment to meet customer's needs
IE04	Knowledge of health and safety	Interested in getting to know and approaching people	Message techniques
	Professional knowledge	Keep curious mind	Acute observation
	Observation of body	Emotion towards body	Self-directed learning
IE05	Professional knowledge	Humanities and aesthetic qualities	Professional skills
	Knowledge of management	Professional accomplishment	Interpersonal communication
	Knowledge of research and development	Affinity/Friendly/Approachable	Ability to develop market
IE09	Product knowledge	Like to approach people	Proficient massage skills
	Professional knowledge	Passion	Self-directed learning
	Knowledge relevant to nutrition, health and lifestyle	Drive to learn	Ability to develop their own style of techniques
IE10	Consumer-related knowledge	Passion for the profession	Ability to understand and mastery of skills
	Professional knowledge	Affinity/Friendly/Approachable	Ability of information acquisition and presentation
	Grasp the relevant information of fashion trend	Positive attitude	The ability to take care of themselves

	Knowledge	Attributes	Skills
IE11	Knowledge of health and safety	Empathy	Professional skills
	Professional knowledge	Enthusiasm / Passion	Eloquence
	Knowledge relevant to Chinese medicine such as Meridian	Spirit of service	Acute observation
IE12	Professional knowledge	Affinity/Friendly/Approachable	Communication skill
	Beauty related legislations/regulations	Responsibility	Professional skills
	Knowledge of management of beauty salon	Spirit of service	Acute observation

Table G1-0-25: The list of core competences for beauty professionals suggested by the industrial experts in Taiwan

The identified core competence tends to correlate to the interviewees' specialist area. In order to prevent the bias, open-ended question for identifying core competence was carried out prior a list of components for ranking the importance of competences. Although the literal meaning of knowledge and skills is different, it was found that they struggled to differentiate the differences between knowledge and skill when there was not a list of components available for them to choose from. For instance, the common answer was given regarding core knowledge mainly falls on the range of subject knowledge such as the physiology of the skin, skin structure, nutrition, meridian, cosmetology and so forth if the interviewees' specialised in beauty therapy. If they specialise in the field of make-up artistry, chromatics, fashionology would be the common answer. In terms of skills, the majority of those the interviewees recognised were mainly based on those practical subjects such as facial massage or body massage techniques. By reminding them of other alternatives, they could try to look at a wider range of skills from personal skill, employability skills to life skills. Thus, all the answers related to subject knowledge are classified in the category of 'professional knowledge' and 'professional skills' as they are used as a collective term to indicate any knowledge and skills relevant to the subject area. However, those specifics and details are not needed to be emphasised as these are a necessity of

requirements for this level of profession. At the end of the interview, interviewees responded that it would be much easier for them to select from the list if it was provided earlier.

The reason for keeping the definition of the scope implicit was because their professionalism could be reflected through their answer. The answers given were of all kinds as they, especially industrial experts, could not quite distinguish the differences between knowledge, skills and attributes. This is not deliberately to challenge or suspect their professional credentials and experience as they have all worked so hard for their accomplishments today, but it also could reveal the issues of VET lacking holistic vision, which reflects the problems in the nurturing system. It is worth thinking if their expertise/professionalism is questioned; it would not be difficult to imagine the level of the graduates might be. Some columns were crossed out because these interviewees were responding with a similar answer over and over again: in other words, they failed to answer the question in full.

G-2: A comparison of expected and required competence

This question was implemented into the second stage of interview again because of the ineffective result from the first stage of interview. It is important to note that all interviewees remarked that all the components listed are thorough and all very important. Even so, they were still requested to differentiate the importance among them.

Educational experts were reminded that whether the HE beauty graduates could meet the expectation is not the point to consider, but what competences they would expect them to possess at the point of the graduation as educational experts tend to consider whether they would/could achieve the expectation. For industrial experts, they need to contemplate what competences they would require from a HE beauty graduate, not that whether they would have the criteria.

The key change is that the scale for the measurement was expanded from 1-3 to 1-7 as this will allow experts to differentiate the importance of competences with greater subtlety, even though the difficulty of answering this question was increased. The changes were that some components were added and some of them were removed according to the feedback from the first stage of the interview.

Table G2-0-26/Figure G2-0-7 indicates that educational experts emphasise the importance of knowledge more than industrial experts. The difference can be seen on the aspects of beauty related Acts, regulations and codes of practice, theoretical knowledge and industrial knowledge. Some responses from industrial experts were because only the salon manager needs to be aware of relevant legislations and regulations, but as beauty therapists they will not need to deal with these issues in the salon. It reveals the misunderstanding of knowledge regarding the legislations, regulations and codes of practice as they considered that the practitioners are no need to be aware of it and it can be seen how little these knowledge has actually involved in daily practice. In terms of theoretical knowledge and industrial knowledge, industrial experts all admit that this relevant knowledge is important, but it could be improved once they are on the job.

No.		Components	EE	IE
1	Knowledge	Understanding of underlying concepts, principles and theories of the discipline	58	52
2		Theoretical knowledge (e.g. physiology, medics, procedures, lab work, tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	55	46
3		Beauty related Acts, regulations and code of practice	55	40
4		Beauty related health & safety and hygiene	58	51
5		Risk assessment	46	44
6		Business insight	49	46
7		Industrial knowledge	52	43
8		Breadth of knowledge (a wide range of knowledge)	55	53
9		Depth of knowledge (in-depth knowledge)	52	47
10		Application of knowledge to practical situations	57	53
11		Updating and developing professional knowledge and expertise	55	51
	Other, please specify:			

Table G2-0-26: The score of knowledge expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the second stage of interview

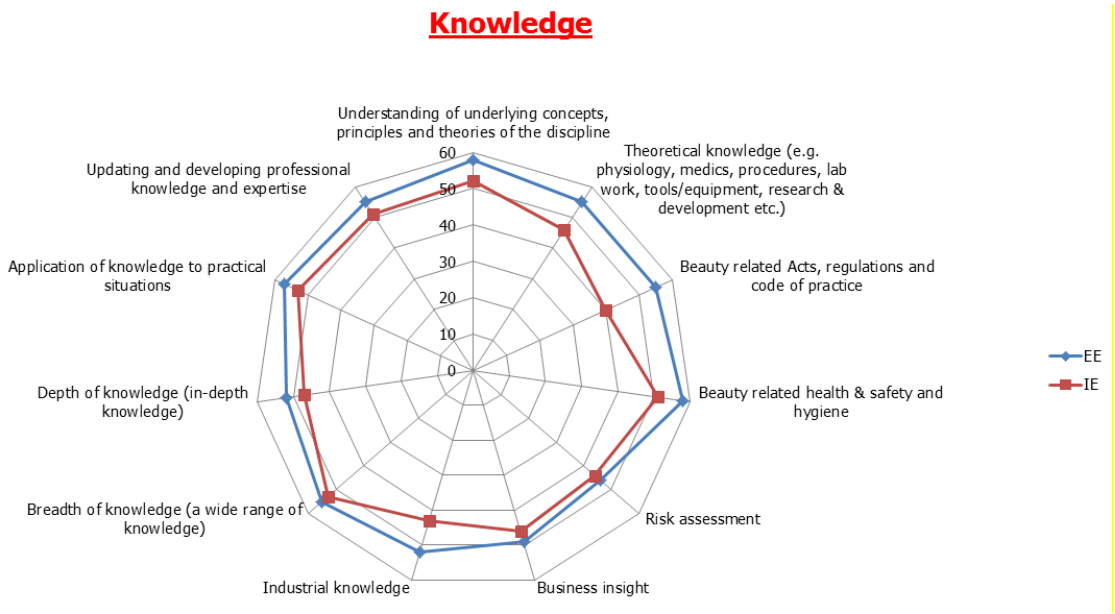


Figure G2-0-7: A comparison of knowledge expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the second stage of interview

In addition, risk assessment was rated the least important by educational experts and was also scored the second lowest by industrial experts. In fact, the majority of them were not aware of what risk assessment was. IE11 claimed that they need to carry out risk assessment prior promoting a new treatment or equipment to the clients, but not the therapists. Although they were all fully aware of the importance of health and safety, they have limited understanding of what is included as they were not aware of risk assessment is part of health and safety concern. It reflects that health and safety has not been paid much attention.

The importance of 'application to knowledge to practical situation' was highlighted by industrial experts because the industrial experts found that the HE graduates enter the employment with very little ability to apply the knowledge they learned into the practical situation. They suggested that HE graduates should be more realistic and to work their way up.

Although some titles of the relevant subjects sounded advanced and profound in Taiwan's HVET beauty curriculum, EE10 even argued that the subject knowledge will not be able to reach the depth that industry required for with this insignificant credit value and limited learning hours (see Section 5.3.1.1). Unexpectedly, experts from both sectors prefer that the graduates possess a breadth of knowledge rather than a depth of knowledge.

No.		Components	EE	IE
1	Skills	Communication with colleagues and customers	59	55
2		Customer service	57	55
3		Business acumen and awareness	53	47
4		Ethical judgement	55	51
5		Interactive / Interpersonal	56	57
6		Ability of speaking, writing, reading and listening	52	53
7		Computer skills	47	44
8		Sells skills	53	53
9		Leadership skills	47	42
10		Consultation / Negotiation	54	48
11		Developing / Maintaining professional contacts & networks	50	44
12		Discovery and application of data / information	52	46
13		Planning /Organisation	46	45
14		Problem-solving /Analytical skills	51	54
15		Professional development /Life-long learning	56	50
16		Self-management (e.g. Time management, work independently, self-discipline, spontaneous)	57	58
17		Self-directed	54	51
18		Self-awareness	55	51
19		Self-reflection and evaluation	56	52
20		Ability to manage others	46	46
21		Team-working	55	60
22		Technical skills (e.g. application to technical procedures, use of tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	56	54
23		Bi / Multi-lingual skill	45	39
24		Communicate and create beauty	54	52
25		Perceptiveness and responsiveness	57	55
26		Aesthetic and design	51	44
27		Ability to perform and complete tasks	55	58
	Other, please specify:			

Table G2-0-27: The score of skills expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the second stage of interview

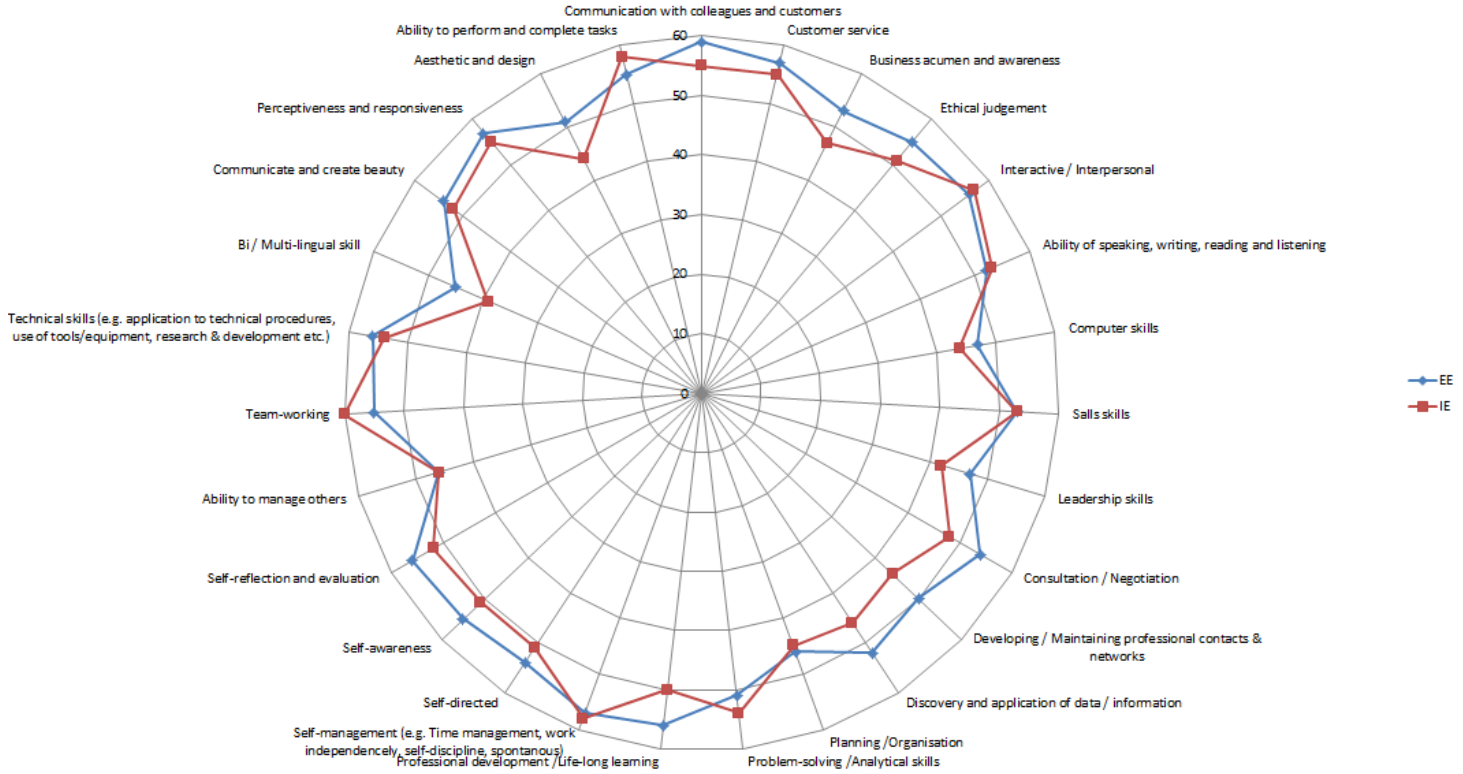


Figure G2-0-8: A comparison of skills expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the second stage of interview

The highest score from EEs is 'communication with colleagues and customers': whereas, IEs placed the importance on 'team-working'. According to some EEs, they admitted that the teaching and learning rather emphasised on training technical skills and theoretical knowledge than these relevant life skills. However, Team-working might be less important for self-employed practitioners.

In terms of the least important components, bi/multi-lingual skill was scored the lowest of all (see the numbers in green) from both sectors. Some of the experts viewed bi-lingual skill as being able to speak Taiwanese and Chinese. When they were asked whether their employees need to have an ability of speaking in English or other international languages, the answers were 'no need' as long as they could recognise the terminology in English or other language of country of origin. It can be assumed that they do not have many English-speaking clients. However, English language was promoted in the national development strategies for raising international competitiveness by Taiwanese government (See Chapter 2). This can reflect that either promoting international competitiveness is just one of the slogans or the policy does not have any impact on both sectors.

In Taiwan, 'being able to plan and organise a treatment/service' is missing in their learning; therefore, interviewees do not recognise this ability to possess.

No.		Components	EE	IE
1	Attributes	Adaptability	58	50
2		Flexibility / Resilience	55	52
3		Attention to detail	53	54
4		Commitment	61	51
5		Cooperation with others	55	57
6		Creativity / Imagination	50	47
7		Decisiveness	46	38
8		Dependability /Responsibility	60	58
9		Passion for the work	60	58
10		Honesty / Integrity	58	60
11		Initiative / Proactive	56	51
12		Reliability	58	53
13		Positive attitude to work	59	56
14		Self-motivation	54	50
15		Timekeeping / Punctuality	58	55
16		Stress / Emotional management	58	56
17		Empathetic	55	52
18		Caring attitude	58	56
19		Drive to learn	59	53
20		Hard working	55	51
21		Confidence	56	52
22		Work ethics	62	60
	Other, please specify:	Affinity/Friendly/Approachable		
		Appearance		
		Down to earth		
		Sincerity		

Table G2-0-28: The score of attributes expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the second stage of interview

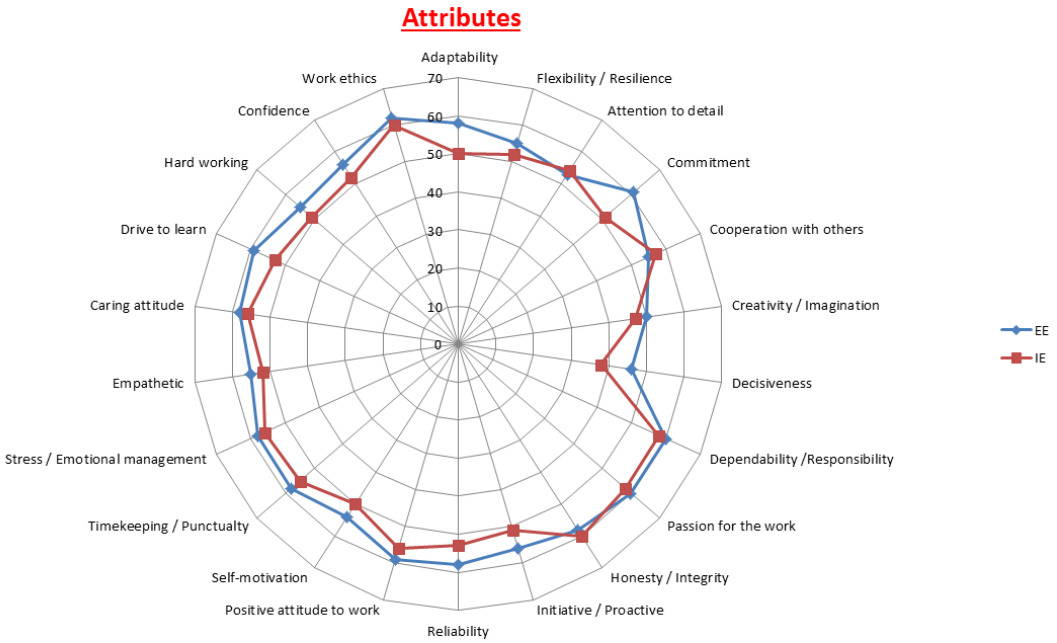


Figure G2-0-9: A comparison of attributes expected and required from EEs and IEs for HVET beauty graduates at the second stage of interview

In this study, attributes were used as a broad term to embrace characteristics, attitude and/or even personalities. The reason for not using personality or characteristics is because both of them have its positive and negative connotation. Those attributes may not be able to be trained, but they can be developed or stimulated through family influence, education, maturity and/or life experience and so forth. Some people might argue that some of the attributes, such as creativity/imagination and caring attributes, have to be innate and it would be less rewarding through development and stimulation.

In general, the experts in both sectors held a similar viewpoint in terms of attributes for beauty graduates. The highest score falls on 'work ethics' and the lowest score is 'decisiveness' by experts from both sectors. This appears consistent with the ranking result from the first stage of interview (see Appendix F-2). Additionally, 'honesty/integrity' was scored as important as Work ethics by IE. The reason given, according to IE, was that some employees would pinch the products home.

Experts in both sectors have shown different perspectives in two attributes, 'commitment' and 'adaptability'. Surprisingly, industrial experts gave a score lower than educational experts as both attributes were assumed to be more important to industry. Two industrial experts, who gave the lowest score, declare that it is not that they are not important, but it is just not that important to the culture of their corporation. They do not request employees to sign a contract and they are allowed to leave anytime as they wish. This is a confidence rarely to see in the beauty industry.

Certainly, experts have no doubt that creativity/imagination is important to make-up artistry, but they have a very limited understanding in what way they could be applied to the beauty industry. The beauty industry is still very service-focused and a practical-oriented industry. The majority of experts regardless of whether they are in education or industry could not envision the element of design implemented into treatment/service to enhance customers'

experience and perhaps even more to transform their mind and body as Pine II and Gilmore (1999) has envisaged.

Through interviews, they all recognised the importance of having a caring attitude for working in the beauty industry as they believe the service they are delivering is involving health care. However, they have not addressed much on the importance of emotional management. It was found that the huge difference between the UK and Taiwan is that in the UK. According to Black (2004), she highlights the importance of emotion for a beauty therapist not only to deal with customers, but also their own emotion after the work. However, in Taiwan, from the conversation in the interviews, it is more about how beauty professionals handle customers' emotion rather than theirs.

The majority of the attributes that graduates should possess for working in the beauty industry are fairly close as can be seen in Figure G2-0-9/Table G2-0-28. It is also clear to see that industrial experts claim the importance of honesty/integrity in their attributes as their work involves handling products and maybe cash. Overall, educational experts have positioned a higher standard of expectation towards beauty graduates than industrial experts.

Also, some industrial experts added on one more attribute, which is not included in the list, which is appearance. They stress that people who enter and work in this profession must take an interest in themselves' and others' appearance. One of them further explained that appearance does not mean simply wearing make-up, but includes looking after themselves inside out.

Appendix H: The list of Taiwan HE institutions with beauty related programmes

	校名	Name of University	系名	Name of Department	Website
1	美和科技大學	Meiho University	美容系	Department of Beauty Science	http://www.meiho.edu.tw/
2	永達技術學院	Yung Ta Institute of Technology & Commerce	時尚美容造型設計系		http://www.ytit.edu.tw/
			化妝品應用與管理系	Department of Cosmetic Application & Management	
3	經國管理暨健康學院	Ching Kuo Institute of Management and Health	化妝品應用系	Department of Applied Cosmetic Science	http://www.cku.edu.tw/
			美容流行設計系	Department of Style Design and Fashion Performance	
4	亞太創意技術學院	Asia-Pacific Institute of Creativity	時尚美容造型設計系	Department of Styling & Cosmetology	http://www.apic.edu.tw/
5	南榮科技大學	Nan Jeon Institute of Technology	美容造型設計系	Department of Styling & Fashion Design	http://www.nju.edu.tw/
			美容系	Department of Beauty Science	
6	國立臺中科技大學	National Taichung University of Science and Technology	美容系	Department of Beauty Science	http://www.nutc.edu.tw/
7	建國科技大學	Chienkuo Technology University	美容系暨美容科技研究所	Department of Beauty Science And Graduate Institute of Beauty Science Technology	http://www.ctu.edu.tw/
8	輔英科技大學	Fooyin University	健康美容系	Department of Health Beauty	http://www.fy.edu.tw/
9	大仁科技大學	Tajen University	時尚美容應用系	Department of Vogue and Beauty	http://www.tajen.edu.tw/
10	吳鳳科技大學	WuFeng University	美容美髮造型設計系	Department of Cosmetology and Image Design	http://www.wfu.edu.tw/
11	台南應用科技大學	Tainan University of Technology	美容造型設計系	Department of Styling and Cosmetology	http://www.tut.edu.tw/
12	中華醫事科技大學	Chung Hwa University of Medical Technology	化妝品應用與管理系	Department of Cosmetic Science	http://www.hwai.edu.tw/
13	遠東科技大學	Far East University	化妝品應用與管理系	Department of Cosmetic Applications and Management	http://www.feu.edu.tw/
14	臺北城市科技大學	Taipei Chengshih University of Science and Technology	化妝品應用與管理系	Department of Cosmetic Applications and Management	http://www.tpcu.edu.tw/
15	萬能科技大學	Vanung University	化妝品應用與管理系暨研所	Department of Cosmetic Science	http://www.vnu.edu.tw/
			美髮造型設計系	Department of Hair Styling and Design	
16	東方設計學院	Tung Fang Design University	美容與生活應用學位學程	Bachelor Program of Beauty& Living Application	http://www.tf.edu.tw
			時尚美妝設計系	Department of Fashion & Cosmetology Design	
17	靜宜大學	Providence University	化粧品科學系	Department of Cosmetic Science	http://www.pu.edu.tw
18	康寧大學	University of Kang Ning	化妝品應用與管理學系	Department of Cosmetics Science and Management	http://www.ukn.edu.tw
			保健美容學系	Department of Health and Beauty	

	校名	Name of University	系名	Name of Department	Website
19	稻江科技暨管理學院	Toko University	時尚美容藝術與保健管理學士學位學程		http://www.toko.edu.tw
20	華夏技術學院	Hwa Hsia University of Technology	化妝品應用系	Department of Applied Cosmetology	http://www.hwh.edu.tw/
21	長庚科技大學	Chang Gung University of Science and Technology	化妝品應用系	Department of Cosmetic Science	http://www.cgust.edu.tw/
22	弘光科技大學	Hungkuang University	化妝品應用系暨化妝品科技研究所	Department of Applied Cosmetology, Master Program of Cosmetic science	http://www.hk.edu.tw/
			美髮造型設計系	Department of Hair Styling and Design	
23	環球科技大學	TransWorld University	美容造型設計系	Department of Styling & Cosmetology	http://www.twu.edu.tw/
24	嘉南藥理科技大學	Chia Nan University of Pharmacy & Science	化粧品應用與管理系(含化粧品科技碩士班)	Department of Cosmetic Science	http://www.chna.edu.tw/
25	蘭陽技術學院	Lan Yang Institute of Technology	化妝品應用系	Department of Cosmetic Science and Application	http://www.fit.edu.tw/
26	正修科技大學	Cheng Shiu University	化妝品與時尚彩妝系（含碩士班）	Department of Cosmetics and Fashion Styling	http://www.csu.edu.tw/
27	桃園創新技術學院	Taoyuan Innovation Institute of Technology	化妝品應用系	Department of Applied Cosmetology	http://www.tiit.edu.tw/
28	黎明技術學院	Lee-Ming Institute of Technology	化妝品應用系		http://www.lit.edu.tw/
30	高苑科技大學	Kao Yuan University	香妝與養生保健學士學位學程	Degree Programe of Cosmetology and Health Care	http://www.kyu.edu.tw/
			化妝品應用管理系	Deaprtment of Applied Cosmetology	
31	和春技術學院	Foutune Institute of Technology	流行時尚造型設計系	Department of Fashion Design and Styling	http://www.fotech.edu.tw/
32	大同技術學院	Tatung Institute of Technology	時尚造型設計系	Department of Fashion Styling & Design	http://www.ttc.edu.tw/
33	樹德科技大學	Shu-Te University	流行設計系	Department of Fashion Design	http://www.stu.edu.tw/

Table H-0-29: A list of Taiwan HE institutions with beauty related programmes (organised by the researcher in 2015)

Appendix I: Four example units of National Occupational Standards

Preparation

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P1	**maintain safe and effective methods of working when assisting with facial treatments by**	**maintain safe and effective methods of working when improving and maintaining facial skin condition by**	**maintain safe and effective methods of working when providing facial electrical treatments by**	**Maintain safe and effective methods of working when providing cosmetic skin needling treatments**
P1.1	setting up the work area to meet salon procedures and any given instructions	setting up the work area to meet legal, hygiene and treatment requirements	setting up and monitoring the treatment area to meet organisation procedures and manufacturers' instructions	set up and monitor the treatment area to meet safety, legal, hygiene, industry guidelines, organisational procedures and manufacturers' instructions
P1.2	making sure that environmental conditions are suitable for the client and the treatment	ensuring that environmental conditions are suitable for the client and the treatment	wearing suitable personal protective equipment, when necessary	wear suitable personal protective equipment, including disposable gloves, throughout the treatment
P1.3	ensuring your personal hygiene, protection and appearance meets accepted industry and organisational requirements	ensuring your personal hygiene, protection and appearance meets accepted industry and organisational requirements	making sure that environmental conditions are suitable for the client and the treatment	make sure that environmental conditions are suitable for the client and the treatment
P1.4	ensuring all tools and equipment are cleaned using the correct methods	ensuring all tools and equipment are cleaned using the correct methods	ensuring your personal hygiene, protection and appearance meets accepted industry and organisational requirements	ensure your personal hygiene, protection and appearance meets accepted industry guidelines and organisational requirements
P1.5	effectively disinfecting your hands prior to facial treatments	effectively disinfecting your hands prior to facial treatments	effectively disinfecting your hands prior to treatment	effectively disinfect your hands prior to and after treatment
P1.6	maintaining accepted industry hygiene and safety practices throughout the treatment	maintaining accepted industry hygiene and safety practices throughout the treatment	ensuring your own posture and position minimises fatigue and risk of injury whilst working	ensure your own posture and position minimises fatigue and risk of injury whilst working
P1.7	positioning equipment and materials for ease and safety of use	positioning equipment and materials for ease and safety of use	ensuring all tools and equipment are cleaned using the correct methods	ensure all needle units are irradiated prior to delivery from the supplier
P1.8	ensuring your own posture and position minimises fatigue and the risk of injury whilst working	ensuring your own posture and position minimises fatigue and the risk of injury whilst working	positioning tools and equipment and products for ease and safety of use	ensure all tools and equipment are cleaned using the correct methods

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P1	**maintain safe and effective methods of working when assisting with facial treatments by**	**maintain safe and effective methods of working when improving and maintaining facial skin condition by**	**maintain safe and effective methods of working when providing facial electrical treatments by**	**Maintain safe and effective methods of working when providing cosmetic skin needling treatments**
P1.9	disposing of waste materials safely and correctly	maintaining the client's modesty and privacy at all times	ensuring the client is in a comfortable and relaxed position suitable for the treatment	ensure a new needle unit is used for each client at each treatment following manufacturer's instructions
P1.10	ensuring that the treatment is cost effective and is carried out within a commercially viable time	disposing of waste materials safely and correctly	maintaining accepted industry hygiene and safety practices throughout the treatment	position equipment and products for ease and safety of use
P1.11	leaving the work area in a condition suitable for further treatments	ensuring that the treatment is cost effective and is carried out within a commercially viable time	adopting a positive, polite and reassuring manner towards the client throughout the treatment	ensure the client is in a comfortable and relaxed position suitable for the treatment
P1.12	ensuring the client's records are up-to-date, accurate, easy to read and signed by the client and practitioner.	leaving the work area in a condition suitable for further treatments	maintaining the client's modesty, privacy and comfort at all times	maintain accepted industry hygiene and safety practices throughout the treatment
P1.13		ensuring the client's records are up-to-date, accurate, easy to read and signed by the client and practitioner.	checking the client's wellbeing at regular intervals according to organisational policy	adopt a positive, polite and reassuring manner towards the client throughout the treatment
P1.14			disposing of waste materials safely and correctly	maintain the client's modesty, privacy and comfort at all times
P1.15			ensuring the treatment is cost effective and is carried out within a commercially viable time	check the client's wellbeing at regular intervals according to organisational policy
P1.16			ensuring client record cards are up-to-date, accurate, complete, legible and signed by the client and practitioner	dispose of single use items, hazardous waste and waste materials safely and correctly following current legal requirements
P1.17			leaving the treatment area, tools and equipment in a condition suitable for future treatments.	ensure the treatment is cost effective and is carried out within a commercially viable time
P1.18				ensure client record cards are up-to-date, accurate, complete, legible and signed by the client and practitioner
P1.19				leave the treatment area and equipment in a condition suitable for future treatments.

Consultation

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P2	**consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients by**	**consult, plan and prepare for facials with clients by**	**consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients by**	**Consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients**
P2.1	using consultation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment needs within the limits of your responsibility	using consultation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment plan	using consultation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment needs	use consultation and evaluation techniques in a polite and friendly manner to determine the client's treatment needs
P2.2	ensuring signed, written, informed consent has been obtained from the client prior to any treatment	obtaining signed, written informed consent from the client prior to carrying out the treatment	ensuring that informed and signed parent or guardian consent is obtained for minors prior to any treatment	refuse treatment to minors under the age of 18 years unless under medical referral
P2.3	ensuring that informed and signed parent or guardian consent has been obtained for minors prior to any treatment	ensuring that informed and signed parent or guardian consent is obtained for minors prior to any treatment	ensuring that a parent or guardian is present throughout the facial electrical treatments for minors under the age of 16	obtain signed, written informed consent from the client prior to carrying out the treatment
P2.4	ensuring that a parent or guardian is present throughout the treatment for minors under the age of 16	ensuring that a parent or guardian is present throughout the treatment for minors under the age of 16	obtaining signed, written informed consent from the client prior to carrying out the treatment	clearly explain to the client what the treatment entails and the risks involved in a way they can understand
P2.5	encouraging clients to ask questions to clarify any points	asking your client appropriate questions to identify if they have any contra-indications to facial treatments	clearly explaining to the client what the treatment entails in a way they can understand	use **consultation and evaluation techniques** which accurately identify the client's medical history, Fitzpatrick skin scale classification, **treatment objectives**, **areas to be treated**, skin condition, sensitivity and emotional state
P2.6	asking your client appropriate questions to identify if they have any contra-indications to facial treatments	accurately recording your client's responses to questioning	encouraging clients to ask questions to clarify any points	carry out a topical anaesthetic skin sensitivity test following product manufacturers' instructions before the start of the course of treatments
P2.7	accurately recording your client's responses to questioning	encouraging clients to ask questions to clarify any points	asking your client appropriate questions to identify their medical history, skin type, skin condition and lifestyle pattern	ask your client appropriate questions to identify if they have any contra- indications to treatments
P2.8	ensuring client advice is given without reference to a specific medical condition and without causing undue alarm and concern	accurately establishing and recording the client's current skin care routine	asking your client appropriate questions to identify if they have any contra-indications to facial electrical treatments	accurately record your client's responses to questioning
P2.9	preparing the client to meet the needs of the agreed treatment and following any given instructions	helping the client into a comfortable and relaxed position for the treatment	accurately recording your client's responses to questioning	encourage clients to ask questions and clarify any points of which they are unsure
P2.10	ensuring the client is in a comfortable and relaxed position	ensuring your client's clothing, hair and accessories are effectively protected or removed	taking the necessary action in response to any identified contra-indications	establish with your client a scale to use to communicate the level of discomfort they are experiencing
P2.11	effectively removing the client's make-up to meet the needs of the treatment	effectively cleansing the client's skin prior to skin analysis	accurately carrying out a test patch to accurately determine the client's skin response to heat and pressure stimuli	take the necessary action in response to any identified contra- indications

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P2	**consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients by**	**consult, plan and prepare for facials with clients by**	**consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients by**	**Consult, plan and prepare for treatments with clients**
P2.12	correctly performing a skin analysis on the client and accurately recording the skin type	correctly performing a skin analysis on the client and accurately recording the skin type and skin condition	recommending alternative treatments which are suitable for the client's condition and needs if contra-indicated for facial electrical treatments	give client advice without reference to a specific medical condition and without causing undue alarm and concern
P2.13	referring clients with conditions that may affect the treatment to the relevant member of staff	taking the necessary action in response to any identified contra-indications	ensuring client advice is given without reference to a specific medical condition and without causing undue alarm and concern	take consistent, high quality pre-treatment photographs of the **areas to be treated** following organisational practices
P2.14	selecting suitable products for the client's skin type based on the results of the skin analysis and instructions from the senior therapist	ensuring client advice is given without reference to a specific medical condition and without causing undue alarm and concern	clearly explaining and agreeing the projected cost, likely duration, frequency and types of treatment needed	clearly explain the physical sensation and appearance created by the treatment and the need for post treatment care
P2.15		recommending suitable treatments and products for the client's skin type and condition	agreeing in writing the client's needs, expectations and **treatment objectives** ensuring they are realistic and achievable	recommend alternative treatments which are suitable for the client's condition and needs if contra-indicated for cosmetic skin needling treatments
P2.16		agreeing the service and outcomes that are acceptable to your client and meet their needs	ensuring that the client's skin is clean and prepared to suit the type of equipment to be used	give the client suitable pre-treatment advice on the use of topical vitamins, two weeks prior to treatment, to improve the health of the skin
P2.17		selecting suitable facial products and equipment for the client's skin type and skin condition based on the results of the skin analysis	selecting suitable **tools and equipment** and related products for the facial treatment and client's skin type and condition	give written aftercare procedures to the client and gain their commitment to follow them
P2.18				confirm details on any existing records are correct and post treatment reactions are recorded
P2.19				clearly explain and agree the course of treatment, its projected cost, likely duration, frequency and form of treatment needed
P2.20				agree in writing the client's needs, expectations and **treatment objectives**, ensuring they are realistic and achievable
P2.21				ensure that the client's skin is clean and suitably prepared for cosmetic skin needling treatment
P2.22				select suitable **equipment** and related products to suit the **treatment objectives**.

Application of treatment

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P3	**carry out facial treatments by**	**improve and maintain skin condition by**	**carry out facial electrical treatments by**	**Carry out cosmetic skin needling treatments**
P3.1	using facial products correctly and following manufacturers' and senior therapists' instructions	using **facial products** and **equipment** correctly and following manufacturers' instructions	clearly explaining the sensation created by the equipment being used	leave the **areas to be treated** cleaned using a suitable anti bacterial cleanser
P3.2	using suitable techniques to deep cleanse the client's skin	leaving the skin clean and free of all traces of make-up using suitable deep cleansing techniques	explaining the treatment procedure to the client in a clear and simple way at each stage in the process	leave the **areas to be treated** coated with suitable topical anaesthetic to minimise client discomfort
P3.3	applying pre-prepared non-setting mask treatments evenly and neatly, ensuring that the area to be treated is covered	using suitable exfoliation techniques, minimising discomfort to the client	safely using the correct treatment settings, applicator and accessories on the face throughout the treatment in accordance with manufacturers' instructions	explain the treatment procedure to the client in a clear and simple way at each stage in the process
P3.4	removing masks after the recommended time and without discomfort to the client	leaving the skin smooth, free of any surface debris and products using an exfoliation technique suitable for the client's **skin type** and **skin condition**	adjusting the intensity and duration of the treatment to suit the client's facial skin type and condition	safely use the correct needle size for the skin condition and problem being treated to meet manufacturer's instructions
P3.5	leaving the skin clean, toned and suitably moisturised	using a suitable skin warming technique relevant to the client's needs	carrying out necessary comedone and milia extraction, when required, minimising discomfort to the client and minimal damage to the skin	work systematically to cover the **areas to be treated** using movements in the direction recommended in the manufacturer's instructions
P3.6	ensuring that the finished result is to the client's and senior therapist's satisfaction	carrying out any necessary comedone extraction, when required, minimising discomfort to the client and with minimal damage to the skin	taking prompt remedial action if the client experiences discomfort or contra-actions	adjust the intensity and duration of the treatment to suit the client's **skin characteristics**, **treatment objectives** and personal tolerance level
P3.7	[redacted]	using a suitable **massage medium** for the client's **skin type** and **skin condition**	applying a suitable post-treatment product to the treated area	check the client's wellbeing throughout the treatment and give reassurance when necessary
P3.8		using and adapting **massage techniques** to meet the needs of the client and agreed treatment	ensuring the finished result is to the client's satisfaction and meets the agreed **treatment objectives**	monitor the skin's reaction and client response and discontinue treatment if adverse reactions occur

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P3	**carry out facial treatments by**	**improve and maintain skin condition by**	**carry out facial electrical treatments by**	**Carry out cosmetic skin needling treatments**
P3.9		applying **mask treatments** evenly and neatly, ensuring that the area to be treated is covered		leave the area treated cleaned and protected with a suitable post- treatment soothing product
P3.10		removing masks after a recommended time and without discomfort to the client		ensure the finished result at the end of the course achieves the best possible outcome for the client within the agreed **treatment objectives**
P3.11		ensuring that the skin is left clean, toned and suitably moisturised		take consistent, clear high quality post-treatment course photographs of the treated area following organisational practices
P3.12		ensuring the finished result is to the client's satisfaction and meets the agreed treatment plan		

Care Advice

	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
P4	**provide aftercare advice by**	**provide aftercare advice by**	**provide aftercare advice by**	**Provide aftercare advice**
P4.1	giving advice and recommendations accurately and constructively	giving advice and recommendations accurately and constructively	giving advice and recommendations accurately and constructively	give advice and recommendations accurately and constructively
P4.2	giving your clients suitable advice on basic facial skin care	giving your clients suitable advice specific to their individual needs	giving your clients suitable advice specific to their individual needs	give your clients suitable advice specific to their individual needs.

Sources from NOS relevant units of facial treatment from Level 1 to Level 4

Appendix J: Examples of assessment checklist

Examples of assessment checklist (developed by the researcher)

1	Beauty Therapy Level 2 & 3										
2	Assessment: Parafin Wax manicure tre			Timeing:							
3	No.	ipment & Materials (Ba		No.	Equipment & Materials		No.	Equipment & Materials			
4		Trolley			Freshener			Orange sticks			
5		Couch roll			Nail enamel remover			Hoof stick			
6		Cotton Wool (Bowl of round and strips) - Dry			Buffing cream			Buffer			
7		Beaker x2 (one is containing 10ml antiseptic & the other is for cuticle remover)			Cuticle massage cream			Knife			
8		Box and strips of tissue Paper			Cuticle remover			Nippers			
9		Spatula			Hand lotion			Emery board			
10		Bowl (small)			Parafin wax			Base coat			
11		Cushion covered with paper towel			Finger bowl with warm, soapy water			Enamel (Choice of colour)			
12		Two set of towel-paper towel-foil						Top Coat			
13		Waste bin						Spray dry			
14		Preparation / Health & Safety check									
15	1	Check candidate's nails cut and clean. Hair tied.									
16	2	Trolley covered with paper towel									
17	3	Prepar a bowl with foil paper coverd.									
18	4	Prepart two set of couch paper-foil-towel									
19	5	Prepare some cotton wool in the bowl.									
20	6	Put the orange stick, hoof stick, knife and nippers in the beaker containing 10ml antiseptic									
21	7	Check client's record card and assessment form									
22	8	Greeting the client and position the client comfortablely									
23	9	Consultation: check contra-indications on nails, explain the treatment and understand the expectation of the client's treatment									
24	10	Ask client to choose the colour of enamel									
25	11	Wash hands and inforn assessor									
26		Process									
27	1	Apply freshener to both hands.									
28	2	Remove varnish, shape, buff nails of left (or right) hand.									
29	3	Apply cuticle massage cream and place the fingers of left hand in warm, soapy solution to sock.									
30	5	Remove varnish, shape, buff nails of right (or left) hand.									
31	6	Apply cuticle massage cream and place the fingers of left hand in warm, soapy solution to sock.									
32	7	Remove left hand from finger bowl and place the right hand in the finger bowl.									
33		Apply 'cuticle remover' on the left hand and proceed with knife and kniffers to cut excess cuticles.									
34	8	Mould back cuticles with hoof stick.									
35	9	Remove right hand from finger bowl.									
36	10	Apply 'cuticle remover' on the right hand and proceed with knife and kniffers to cut excess cuticles.									
37		Mould back cuticles with hoof stick.									
38	11	Carry out hand and arm massage to the left hand, using hand massage lotion.									
39	12	Carry out hand and arm massage to the right hand, using hand massage lotion.									
40	13	Pour enough melted parafin wax into a large bowl lined with foil.									
41	14	Test the wax on myself and then on clients' wrist to ensure not too hot.									
42	15	Brush parafin wax on both hands and wrap each hand in the paper-foil-towel for 10-15 minutes.									
43	16	Remove the parafin wax.									
44	17	Ask client whether he/she wants to remove excess oil by apply a skin freshener to both hands using cotton wool dampened with freshener.									
45	18	Squeak the nails to thoroughly remove oil.									
46	19	Paint. (Pink, colour, then transparent one)									
47	20	Give after-care and home-care									
48											

1	Beauty Therapy Level 2 & 3					
2	Assessment: Standard Pedicure treatn		Timeing:			
3	No.	ipment & Materials (Ba:	No.	Equipment & Materials	No.	Equipment & Materials
4		Cotton Wool (Bowl of round and strips) - Dry		Foot bath (hot water + Foot bath gel)		Orange sticks
5		Paper towel x 8		Foot Spray		Hoof stick
6		Beaker x2 (one is containing 10ml antiseptic & the other is for cuticle remover)		Nail enamel remover		Emery board
7		Two towels ready		Cuticle massage cream		Cuticle Knife
8		Box and strips of tissue Paper		Cuticle remover		Cuticle Nippers
9		Bowl (small)		Foot scrub		Spatula
10		Waste bin with liner		Foot powder		Base coat
11		Two folded long stripe tissue papers		Foot and leg massage cream / oil		Enamel (Choice of colour)
12						Top Coat
13				Toenail Clippers		Spray dry
14		Preparation / Health & Safety check				
15	1	**Check candidate's nails cut and clean. Hair tied.**				
16	2	Trolley covered with paper towel				
17	3	Put the orange stick, hoof stick, knife and nippers in the beaker containing 10ml antiseptic				
18	4	Check client's record card and assessment form				
19	5	Greeting the client and position the client comfortablely				
20	6	Consultation: explain the treatment and understand the expectation of the client's treatment				
21	7	Ask client to choose the colour of enamel				
22	8	Ask the client to remove footwear. Stockings. Etc. Place neatly under couch, shoes together.				
23	9	Wash hands and inform assessor				
24		Process				
25	1	Place a paper towel on top of the towel on therapist's tight.				
26	2	Lift the client's left leg on the top of therapist knees, then Spray 'foot spray' on the feet and check contra-indication. Soak the left foot in bowl of warm water containing antiseptic foot bath.				
27	3	Lift the client's right leg on the top of therapist knees, then Spray 'foot spray' on the feet and check contra-indication. Soak the right foot in bowl of warm water containing antiseptic foot bath.				
28	4	Remove the client's left foot from bowl onto therapist's knee and dry the foot with paper towel. Change				
29	5	Remove varnish, then cut and shape the toenails.				
30	6	Apply foot scrub and spread it all over the foot.				
31	7	Use Rasp(a callus file) in one direction to stubborn areas of hard skin.				
32	8	Apply cuticle massage cream and massage the cuticle. Place the left foot back into warm water.				
33	9	Remove the client's right foot from bowl onto therapist's knee and dry the foot with paper towel. Change tissue.				
34	10	Remove varnish, then cut and shape the toenails.				
35	11	Apply foot scrub and spread it all over the foot.				
36	12	Use Rasp(a callus file) in one direction to stubborn areas of hard skin.				
37	13	Apply cuticle massage cream and and massage the cuticle. Place the right foot back into warm water.				
38	14	Wash off the foot scrub on the left foot. Remove the left foot from bowl and dry it thoroughly. Change				
39	15	Apply 'cuticle remover' on the left foot and proceed with knife and nippers to cut excess cuticles.				
40	16	Mould back cuticles with hoof stick.				
41	17	Wrap left foot in towel (boot).				
42	18	Wash off the foot scrub on the right foot. Remove the right foot from bowl and carefully slide bowl under trolley. Dry the rioght foot thoroughly. Change tissue.				
43	19	Apply 'cuticle remover' on the rightfoot and proceed with knife and nippers to cut excess cuticles.				
44	20	Mould back cuticles with hoof stick.				
45	21	Wrap right foot in towel (boot).				
46	22	Massage the left foot, using foot massage cream/oil. Wrap left foot back in towel (boot).				
47	23	Massage the right foot, using foot massage cream/oil. Wrap right foot back in towel (boot).				
48	24	Apply foot powder on the feet.				
49	25	Ask client whether he/she wants to remove excess oil by apply a skin freshener to both hands using cotton wool dampened with freshener.				
50	26	**Squeak the toenails to thoroughly remove oil.**				
51	27	Separate toes with tissues.				
52	28	Paint. (base coat, enamel, then top coat) Spary to fasten the nail varnish to day.				
53	29	Give after-care and home-care				

Appendix K: List of primary documents

No	Name of the documents	Publisher	Year of public-ation		Date accessed
1.	Level 2 Awards/Certificates/Diplomas in Beauty Therapy (3003) Qualification handbook for centres (Version 5)	City & Guilds	2014	http://cdn.cityandguilds.com/ProductDocuments/Beauty_and_Complementary_Therapies/Beauty/3003/3003_Level_2/Centre_documents/3003_L2_Qualification_handbook_v5.pdf	25/09/14
2.	Level 3 Awards/Diplomas in Beauty Therapy (3003) Qualification handbook for centres (Version 5-2)	City & Guilds	2014	http://cdn.cityandguilds.com/ProductDocuments/Beauty_and_Complementary_Therapies/Beauty/3003/3003_Level_3/Centre_documents/3003_L3_Qualification_handbook_v5-2.pdf	23/10/14
3.	VTCT Level 4 Diploma in Advanced Beauty Therapy (QCF)	VTCT	2015	http://www.vtct.org.uk/Home/QualificationCentreFinder.aspx	15/01/15
4.	VTCT Level 3 Diploma in Beauty Therapy Treatments (QCF)	VTCT	2015	http://www.vtct.org.uk/Home/QualificationCentreFinder.aspx	15/01/15
5.	Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy Studies (QCF)	VTCT	2015	http://www.vtct.org.uk/Home/QualificationCentreFinder.aspx	15/01/15
6.	VTCT Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Specialist Techniques (QCF)	VTCT	2015	http://www.vtct.org.uk/Home/QualificationCentreFinder.aspx	15/01/15
7.	VTCT Level 1 Diploma in Beauty Therapy (QCF)	VTCT	2015	http://www.vtct.org.uk/Home/QualificationCentreFinder.aspx	15/01/15
8.	Edexcel BTEC Level 2 Extended Certificate in Beauty Therapy Services and BTEC Level 2 Diploma in Beauty Therapy (QCF)	Pearson	2010	http://qualifications.pearson.com/content/dam/pdf/BTEC-Firsts/Beauty-Therapy/2010/Specification/BF024982-BTEC-Firsts-Beauty-Therapy-Services-spec.pdf	15/01/15
9.	Edexcel BTEC Level 3 Subsidiary Diploma in Beauty Therapy Techniques (QCF) and Edexcel BTEC Level 3 Diploma in Beauty Therapy (QCF)	Pearson	2011	http://qualifications.pearson.com/content/dam/pdf/BTEC-Nationals/Beauty-Therapy/2010/Specification/BN029353-BTEC-L3-Nationals-Specification-SD-in-Beauty-Therapy-Tech-D-in-Beauty-Therapy-QCF-Iss3-for-web-030811.pdf	15/01/15

No	Name of the documents	Publisher	Year of public-ation		Date accessed
10	BA (Hons) Make-Up and Hair Design	Southampton Solent University	2014	http://mycourse.solent.ac.uk/mod/folder/view.php?id=272800	23/02/15
11	Course Information Form (CIF)	Barnfield college/University of Bedfordshire	2013	http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCEQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.beds.ac.uk%2Fcourses-related-downloads%2Fcourses-downloads%3Ffile_uri%3D%257BAF406952-61F9-4B6E-918D-CEE0A5AD42F5%257D%2FCATS_CIF_BATVP-S%2520_LIVE.pdf&ei=8IjsVKn0K8rOaMuJgZgL&usg=AFQjCNHglqOnIFiRpLHrQhZbvcBrgmnkFg	23/02/15
12	Foundation Degree in Artistic Make-up & Special Effects: Student Handbook	Leicester College	2013	Hard copy	23/02/15
13	Foundation degree in Artistic Make-Up and Special Effects: A Collaborative Development Between Leicester college and Coventry University	Leicester College	2007	http://www.coventry.ac.uk/Documents/Registry/CSAD%20Programmes/FDAMSESubmissionDocument.pdf	01/10/14 Updated on 23/02/15
14	Programme specification of FdA Salon Management	University Centre Grimsby	2013	http://www.grimsby.ac.uk/highereducation/documents/quality/specs/N872.pdf	23/02/15
15	Programme Specification of Foundation Degree in Media Make-up, Special Effects Make-up and Hair Design	York College/York St John University	2013	http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0CCMQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.yorksj.ac.uk%2Fdocuments%2Fdirectory%2Fregs-and-prog-specs%2Fidoc.ashx%3Fdocid%3D95baab2a-6c2f-4ba2-9f29-9aae33b413f0%26version%3D-1&ei=0ozsVJryLMXgapeBgdAD&usg=AFQjCNH_MnlmDKIQXnQyAJmT_tL0MOb-rw&bvm=bv.86475890,d.d24	23/02/15
16	Foundation Degree programme specification in Complementary Therapies	Newcastle College/Northumbria University	2006	https://www.northumbria.ac.uk/programmespecs/progspecs/1481065.doc	23/02/15

No	Name of the documents	Publisher	Year of public-ation		Date accessed
17	HND in Hair and Beauty Salon Management Level 5	Bournville College	2014	http://www.bournville.ac.uk/courses/hnd-in-hair-and-beauty-salon-management-level-5/#	24/02/15

Appendix L: List of interviewees in the UK

No Code	Unit	Position	Sector crossed
UKEE-A	Institution A	Curriculum Area Manager of Hair and Beauty	E
UKEE-B	Institution A	Curriculum Area Manager of Hair and Beauty	E
UKEE-C	Institution A	Programme Leader in Foundation Degree of Artistic Make-Up and Special Effects	E&P
UKEE-D	Institution A	Senior lecturer/assessor in beauty Therapy and Course Team Leader of Media Make-Up	E&P
UKEE-E	Institution A	Senior lecturer/assessor in beauty Therapy and Lead IV The owner of a salon	E&I&P
UKEE-F	Institution A	Assessor and industrial instructor/trainer	E&I
UKEE-G	Institution B	Curriculum Area Manager of Beauty and Media make-up	E
UKEE-H	Institution B	Junior lecturer/assessor	E
UKEE-I	Institution C	Programme Leader of Youth and Community Foundation Degree	E

No Code	Unit	Position	Sector crossed
UKIE-A	Salon A & Freelance	Beauty Therapist and Make-up Artist	P
UKIE-B	Salon B	Senior Beauty Therapist	P
UKIE-C	Freelance	Beauty Therapist and Make-up Artist	P
UKIE-D	Freelance	Make-up Artist	P
UKIE-E	Cosmetic company A	Director of professional cosmetics	I&P
UKIE-F	Freelance	Home-based beauty therapist	P
UKIE-G	Freelance	Mobile beauty therapist	P

Appendix M: Interview questions for educational experts (stage one)

Beauty Educational Experts Interview

Name (Optional): _____ Job position: _____ Date: _____

1: The structure of educational institution

Type: ☐Further Education sector ☐Higher Education sector ☐Others_____

Programme: ☐Cosmetic Science ☐Beauty and Health ☐ Styling and Cosmetology ☐Others_____

Your speciality (Multiple choice): ☐Beauty therapy (Including skin care and general make-up) ☐Body care ☐Artistic make-up and special effects ☐Cosmetology and styling ☐ Cosmetic manufacture and application ☐Nail technology and Nail art ☐Complementary Therapy ☐Hairdressing ☐Others_____

How long have you been working in your specialised area? ☐Less than 1 year ☐1-5 years ☐6-10 years ☐11-15 years ☐16-20 years ☐ Over 21 years ☐Do not know ☐Not sure ☐Others_____

2: Current industrial situation

Q2-1. As a professional in beauty educational sector, please rank the importance of components shown below on the left in order (1-7: 1 is the most important and 7 is the least important), then give a score according to the importance of each component on the right (1-3: 3 is the most important and 1 is the least important).

Ranking (1 is the most important and 7 is the least important)	**Components**	**1**	**2**	**3**
	The quality of service and attitude			
	Human resource, promotion and welfare			
	Work ethic			
	Profit			
	Convey and create beauty			
	Professional competences(Professional knowledge、skills and characteristics)			
	The quality of products, reputation and marketing			

Comment: _____

Q2-2. What do you think that raising the bar of entering into this profession (including industry and education entrance requirements) would help to raise the professional status of beauty sector?

Comment: _____

Q2-3. What would you do to help your learners gain and develop their professional competences?

Comment: _____

Q2-4. So far, do you think that the beauty professionals graduated from Vocational Education and Training system match industrial requirements?

Degree	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Adequate	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Don't know
Higher Education						

Comment: _____

3: Communication/interaction between education and industry

Q3-1: Please give a score (1-10) for the current status of communication/interaction between education and industry. (1: poor communication; 10: effective communication)

Comment: _____

Q3-2: What reasons do you think are the cause of the effective or ineffective communication?

Comment: _____

Q3-3: Do you think in what ways could make the communication between education and training more effectively?

Comment: _____

4: Professional development

Q4-1: What methods do you use currently to promote the development of beauty graduates'/practitioners'/professionals' competence (e.g. work placement, on-the-job training, continuing professional development etc.)?

Comment: _____

Q4-2: Please analyse the strengths and weaknesses of the method you are currently using?

Advantage: _____

Disadvantage: _____

Q4-3: Any better approach to enhance beauty graduates' competence apart from the method(s) you have mentioned above?

Comment: _____

5: Competence identification

Competence has been divided into three categories which are Knowledge, Skills and Attributes. What do you think that kind of competences beauty professionals need to possess when they graduate from Higher Education in Beauty?

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 2 is more important; 3 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

No		Components	1	2	3
1	**Knowledge**	Understanding of concepts, facts, principles, theories of the discipline			
2		Breadth of knowledge			
3		Depth of knowledge			
4		Application of knowledge to practical situations			
5		Up-to-date with developments in area/discipline			
6		Knowledge (e.g. procedures, working with lab, equipment)			
7		Research			
	Others: Please specify				

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 2 is more important; 3 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

No		Components	1	2	3
1		Communication: Oral, written, questioning and listening			
2		Commercial / Business awareness			
3		Appreciation of ethical issues			
4		Information retrieval / Analysis			
5		Information technology			
6		Interpersonal/Interaction			
7		Leadership			
8		Negotiation / Persuasion			
9		Networking			
10		Numeracy / Data handling			
11	**Skills**	Planning /Organisation			
12		Problem-solving /Analytical			
13		Professional development /Life-long learning			
14		Self-management (e.g. Time management, independence)			
15		Ability to manage others			
16		Team-working			
17		Technical (e.g. procedures, working with lab, equipment)			
18		Language			
19		Observation/Response			
20		Aesthetics and Design			
21		Execution			
	Others: Please specify				

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 2 is more important; 3 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

No		Components	1	2	3
1	**Attributes**	Adaptability/Flexibility			
2		Attention to detail			
3		Commitment			
4		Cooperation			
5		Creativity / Imagination			
6		Decisiveness			
7		Dependability /Responsibility			
8		Maintaining a positive attitude			
9		Integrity			
10		Initiative			
11		Self-awareness			
12		Timekeeping /Punctually			
13		Tolerance to stress /Emotional resilience			
14		Willingness to learn / Enthusiasm			
15		Work ethic			
16		Caring			
17		Self-directed			
	Others: Please specify				

6: Future trend

Q6-1. What do you think that the requirement of beauty professional competence might be in 5-10 years' time?

Comment: _____

Q6-2. How to nurture this/those competence(s)?

Comment: _____

Q6-3. In terms of facing future development, what do you think that beauty professionals need to possess if they want to gain and/or maintain the employability?

Comment: _____

Q6-4. What shortage of beauty professional might be in 5-10 years' time?

Comment: _____

Thank you for your professional opinion!

Appendix N: Interview questions for industrial experts (stage one)

Beauty Industrial Experts Interview

Name (Optional): _____ Job title: _____ Date: _____

1: The structure of industry

Type: ☐Firm ☐Salon ☐Spa ☐Others_____

The number of employees: ☐None, only the owner ☐1-3 employees ☐ 4-6 employees

☐ 7-10 employees ☐ Over 11 ☐Others_____

Basic qualification requirement for employing beauty professionals: ☐None ☐High/Vocational High graduate ☐College graduate ☐University graduate ☐ Cosmetic manufacture and application ☐Nail technology and Nail art ☐Complementary Therapy ☐Hairdressing ☐Others_____

Professional background requirement for employing beauty professionals: ☐No requirement ☐Beauty programme related ☐Partial beauty programme related ☐University graduate ☐ Cosmetic manufacture and application ☐Nail technology and Nail art ☐Complementary Therapy ☐Hairdressing ☐Others_____

Requirement for National Occupational License: ☐No requirement ☐Class C ☐Class B ☐Others_____

Requirement for relevant working experience: ☐No requirement ☐1-3 years ☐4-6 years ☐7-10 years ☐ Over 10 years ☐Do not know ☐Do not care ☐Others_____

2: Current industrial situation and value

Q2-1. As a professional in beauty educational sector, please rank the importance of components shown below on the left in order (1-7: 1 is the most important and 7 is the least important), then give a score according to the importance of each component on the right (1-3: 3 is the most important and 1 is the least important).

Ranking (1 is the most important and 7 is the least important)	**Components**	**1**	**2**	**3**
	The quality of service and attitude			
	Human resource, promotion and welfare			
	Work ethic			
	Profit			
	Convey and create beauty			
	Professional competences(Professional knowledge、skills and characteristics)			
	The quality of products, reputation and marketing			

Comment: _____

Q2-2. What do you think that raising the bar of entering into this profession (including industry and education entrance requirements) would help to raise the professional status of beauty sector?

Comment: _____

Q2-3. So far, do you think that the beauty professionals graduated from Vocational Education and Training system match industrial requirements?

Degree	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Adequate	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Don't know
Graduated from Further Education sector						
Graduated from Higher Education sector						

Comment: _____

3: Communication/interaction between education and industry

Q3-1: Please give a score (1-10) for the current status of communication/interaction between education and industry. (1: poor communication; 10: effective communication)

Comment: _____

Q3-2: What reasons do you think are the cause of the effective or ineffective communication?

Comment: _____

Q3-3: Do you think in what ways could make the communication between education and training more effectively?

Comment: _____

4: Professional development

Q4-1: What methods do you use currently to promote the development of beauty graduates'/practitioners'/professionals' competence (e.g. work placement, on-the-job training, continuing professional development etc.)?

Comment: _____

Q4-2: Please analyse the strengths and weaknesses of the method you are currently using?

Advantage: _____

Disadvantage: _____

Q4-3: Any better approach to enhance beauty graduates' competence apart from the method(s) you have mentioned above?

Comment: _____

5: Competence identification

Competence has been divided into three categories which are Knowledge, Skills and Attributes. What do you think that kind of competences beauty professionals need to possess when they graduate from Higher Education in Beauty?

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 2 is more important; 3 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

No		Components	Graduated from Further Education sector			Graduated from Higher Education sector		
			1	2	3	1	2	3
1	Knowledge	Understanding of concepts, facts, principles, theories of the discipline						
2		Breadth of knowledge						
3		Depth of knowledge						
4		Application of knowledge to practical situations						
5		Up-to-date with developments in area/discipline						
6		Knowledge (e.g. procedures, working with lab, equipment)						
7		Research						
	Others: Please specify							

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 2 is more important; 3 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

No		Components	Graduated from Further Education sector			Graduated from Higher Education sector		
			1	2	3	1	2	3
1	**Skills**	Communication: Oral, written, questioning and listening						
2		Commercial / Business awareness						
3		Appreciation of ethical issues						
4		Information retrieval / Analysis						
5		Information technology						
6		Interpersonal/Interaction						
7		Leadership						
8		Negotiation / Persuasion						
9		Networking						
10		Numeracy / Data handling						
11		Planning /Organisation						
12		Problem-solving /Analytical						
13		Professional development /Life-long learning						
14		Self-management (e.g. Time management, independence)						
15		Ability to manage others						
16		Team-working						
17		Technical (e.g. procedures, working with lab, equipment)						
18		Language						
19		Observation/Response						
20		Aesthetics and Design						
21		Execution						
	Others: Please specify							

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 2 is more important; 3 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

No		Components	Graduated from Further Education sector			Graduated from Higher Education sector		
			1	2	3	1	2	3
1	**Attributes**	Adaptability/Flexibility						
2		Attention to detail						
3		Commitment						
4		Cooperation						
5		Creativity / Imagination						
6		Decisiveness						
7		Dependability /Responsibility						
8		Maintaining a positive attitude						
9		Integrity						
10		Initiative						
11		Self-awareness						
12		Timekeeping /Punctually						
13		Tolerance to stress /Emotional resilience						
14		Willingness to learn / Enthusiasm						
15		Work ethic						
16		Caring						
17		Self-directed						
	Others: Please specify							

6: Future trend

Q6-1. What do you think that the requirement of beauty professional competence might be in 5-10 years' time?

Comment: _____

Q6-2. How to nurture this/those competence(s)?

Comment: _____

Q6-3. In terms of facing future development, what do you think that beauty professionals need to possess if they want to gain and/or maintain the employability?

Comment: _____

Q6-4. What shortage of beauty professional might be in 5-10 years' time?

Comment: _____

Thank you for your professional opinion!

Appendix O: Interview questions for educational experts (stage two)

Beauty Educational Experts Interview

Name (Optional): _____ Job title: _____ Date: _____

1: The structure of educational institution

Type: ☐Further Education sector ☐Higher Education sector ☐Others_____

Programme: ☐Cosmetic Science ☐Beauty and Health ☐ Styling and Cosmetology ☐Others_____

Your speciality (Multiple choice): ☐Beauty therapy (Including skin care and general make-up) ☐Body care ☐Artistic make-up and special effects ☐Cosmetology and styling ☐ Cosmetic manufacture and application ☐Nail technology and Nail art ☐Complementary Therapy ☐Hairdressing ☐Others_____

How long have you been working in your specialised area? ☐Less than 1 year ☐1-5 years ☐6-10 years ☐11-15 years ☐16-20 years ☐ Over 21 years ☐Do not know ☐Not sure ☐Others_____

2: Identification of Core Competence

Q2-1. Please list at least **three** you think the most important **Core Knowledge** that a beauty expert must have in order.

1._____ 2. _____ 3. _____

Q2-2. Please list at least **three** you think the most important **Core Skills** that a beauty expert must have in order

1._____ 2. _____ 3. _____

Q2-3. Please list at least **three** you think the most important **Core Attributes** that a beauty expert must have in order

1._____ 2. _____ 3. _____

3: Identification of Competence

Competence identification for beauty graduates

Competence has been divided into three categories which are Knowledge, Skills and Attributes. What do you think that kind of competences beauty professionals need to possess when they graduate from Higher Education in Beauty?

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 7 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

Knowledge HE beauty graduate should possess….		**Please '✓' according to its importance** **1** is the **least** important ◄——► **7** is the **most** important						
Understanding of underlying concepts, principles and theories of the discipline		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Theoretical knowledge (e.g. physiology, medics, procedures, lab work, tools/equipment, research & development etc.)		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Beauty related Acts, regulations and code of practice		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Beauty related health & safety and hygiene		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Risk assessment		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Business insight		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Industrial knowledge		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Breadth of knowledge (a wide range of knowledge)		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Depth of knowledge (in-depth knowledge)		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Application of knowledge to practical situations		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Updating and developing professional knowledge and expertise		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Others: Please specify		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

(1 is the least important; 7 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

Skills that HE beauty graduate should possess….	**Please '✓' according to its importance** **1** is the **least** important ◄——► **7** is the **most** important						
Communication with colleagues and customers	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Customer service	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Business acumen and awareness	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ethical judgement	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Interactive / Interpersonal	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ability of speaking, writing, reading and listening	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Computer skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Sells skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Leadership skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Consultation / Negotiation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Developing / Maintaining professional contacts & networks	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Discovery and application of data / information	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Planning /Organisation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Problem-solving /Analytical skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Professional development /Life-long learning	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-management (e.g. Time management, work independently, self-discipline, spontaneous)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-directed	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-awareness	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-reflection and evaluation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ability to manage others	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Team-working	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Technical skills (e.g. application to technical procedures, use of tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Bi / Multi-lingual skill	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Communicate and create beauty	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Perceptiveness and responsiveness	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Aesthetic and design	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ability to perform and complete tasks	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Others: Please specify	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance

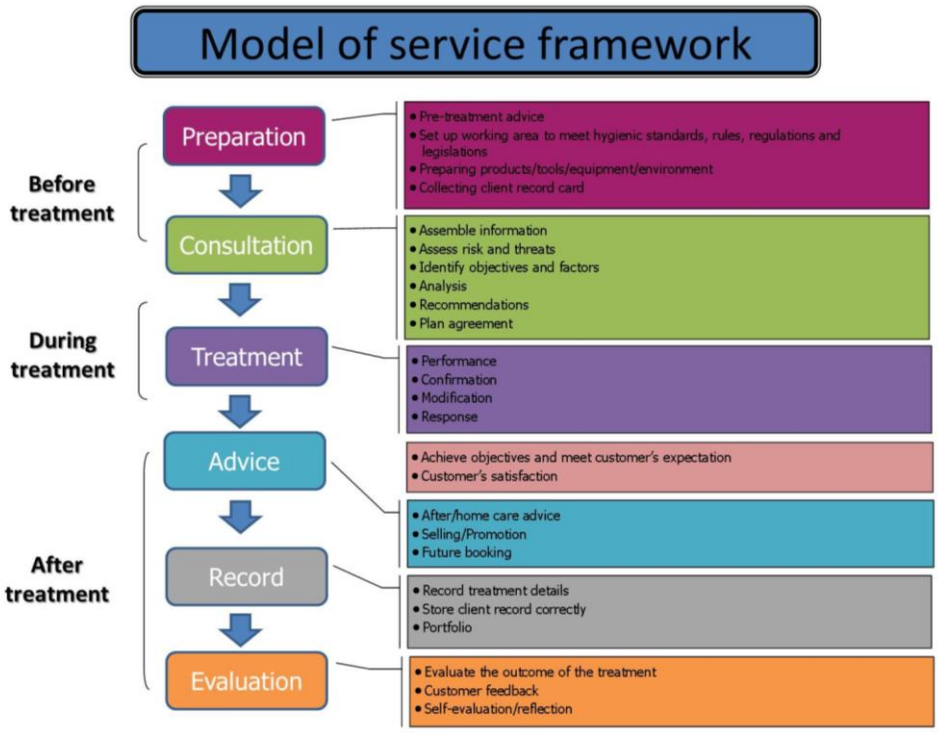
(1 is the least important; 7 is the most important)

*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

Attributes that HE beauty graduate should possess....		**Please '✓' according to its importance** **1** is the **least** important ⟷ **7** is the **most** important						
Adaptability		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Flexibility / Resilience		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Attention to detail		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Commitment		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Cooperation with others		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Creativity / Imagination		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Decisiveness		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Dependability /Responsibility		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Passion for the work		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Honesty / Integrity		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Initiative / Proactive		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Reliability		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Positive attitude to work		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-motivation		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Timekeeping / Punctuality		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Stress / Emotional management		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Empathetic		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Caring attitude		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Drive to learn		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Hard working		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Confidence		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Work ethics		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Others: Please specify		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐

4: Models Testing

4-1 Model 1: Service Model



Q4-1-1: Do you agree that the service quality could be assured if the model is implemented into the industrial practice?

Agree: _____

Disagree, why? _____

Q4-1-2: Do you agree that the service model could accelerate teaching and learning if it is implemented into education?

Agree: _____

Disagree, why? _____

Q4-1-3: Do you agree that the service model could standardise the difference between education and industry?

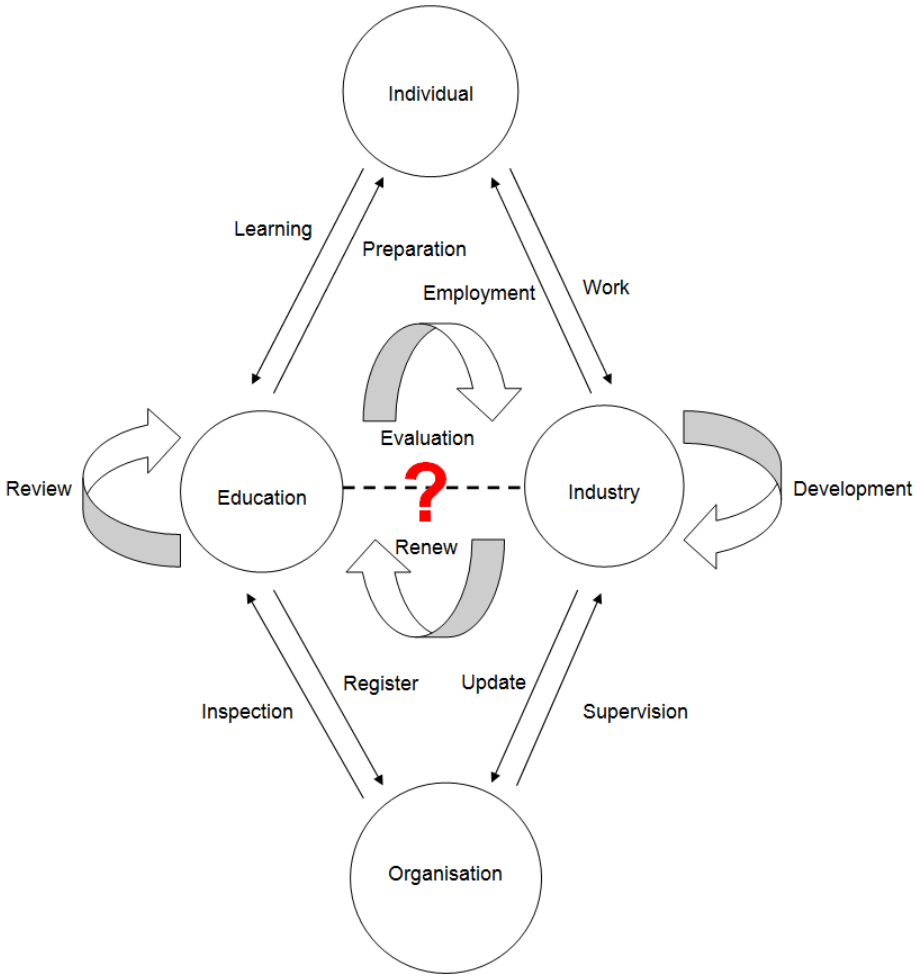
Agree: _____

Disagree, why? _____

Q4-1-4: Do you agree that the service model could be applied to all or the majority of treatment applications?

Agree: _____

4-2 Model 2: Work Placement Model



Q4-2-1: If the '**?**' indicates an establishment of co-ordination agency or coordinator, would their existence assist the communication between education and industry?

Comment: _____

Q4-2-2: Do you think which sector (government, education or industry) should be responsible for establishing this coordination agency or delegating the coordinator? And why?

Comment: _____

Q4-2-3: What three core competences do you think that the co-ordinator should possess?

Comment: _____

Appendix P: Interview questions for industrial experts (stage two)

Beauty Industrial Experts Interview

1: The structure of Industry

Type: ☐Firm ☐Salon ☐Spa ☐Others_____

The number of employees: ☐None, only the owner ☐1-3 employees ☐ 4-6 employees

☐ 7-10 employees ☐ Over 11 ☐Others_____

Basic qualification requirement for employing beauty professionals: ☐None ☐High/Vocational High graduate ☐College graduate ☐University graduate ☐ Cosmetic manufacture and application ☐Nail technology and Nail art ☐Complementary Therapy ☐Hairdressing ☐Others_____

Professional background requirement for employing beauty professionals: ☐No requirement ☐Beauty programme related ☐Partial beauty programme related ☐University graduate ☐ Cosmetic manufacture and application ☐Nail technology and Nail art ☐Complementary Therapy ☐Hairdressing ☐Others_____

Requirement for National Occupational License: ☐No requirement ☐Class C ☐Class B ☐Others_____

Requirement for relevant working experience: ☐No requirement ☐1-3 years ☐4-6 years ☐7-10 years ☐ Over 10 years ☐Do not know ☐Do not care ☐Others_____

2: Identification of Core Competence

Q2-1. Please list at least **three** you think the most important **Core Knowledge** that a beauty expert must have in order.

1._____ 2. _____ 3. _____

Q2-2. Please list at least **three** you think the most important **Core Skills** that a beauty expert must have in order

1._____ 2. _____ 3. _____

Q2-3. Please list at least **three** you think the most important **Core Attributes** that a beauty expert must have in order

1._____ 2. _____ 3. _____

3: Identification of Competence

Competence identification for beauty graduates

Competence has been divided into three categories which are Knowledge, Skills and Attributes. What do you think that kind of competences beauty professionals need to possess when they graduate from Higher Education in Beauty?

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance
(1 is the least important; 7 is the most important)
*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

Knowledge HE beauty graduate should possess….		**Please '✓' according to its importance** **1** is the **least** important ⟷ **7** is the **most** important						
Understanding of underlying concepts, principles and theories of the discipline		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Theoretical knowledge (e.g. physiology, medics, procedures, lab work, tools/equipment, research & development etc.)		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Beauty related Acts, regulations and code of practice		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Beauty related health & safety and hygiene		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Risk assessment		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Business insight		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Industrial knowledge		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Breadth of knowledge (a wide range of knowledge)		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Depth of knowledge (in-depth knowledge)		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Application of knowledge to practical situations		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Updating and developing professional knowledge and expertise		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Others: Please specify		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐

The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance
(1 is the least important; 7 is the most important)
*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

Skills that HE beauty graduate should possess....	**Please '✓' according to its importance** **1** is the **least** important ◄——► **7** is the **most** important						
Communication with colleagues and customers	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Customer service	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Business acumen and awareness	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ethical judgement	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Interactive / Interpersonal	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ability of speaking, writing, reading and listening	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Computer skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Sells skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Leadership skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Consultation / Negotiation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Developing / Maintaining professional contacts & networks	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Discovery and application of data / information	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Planning /Organisation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Problem-solving /Analytical skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Professional development /Life-long learning	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-management (e.g. Time management, work independently, self-discipline, spontaneous)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-directed	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-awareness	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-reflection and evaluation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ability to manage others	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Team-working	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Technical skills (e.g. application to technical procedures, use of tools/equipment, research & development etc.)	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Bi / Multi-lingual skill	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Communicate and create beauty	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Perceptiveness and responsiveness	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Aesthetic and design	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Ability to perform and complete tasks	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Others: Please specify	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐

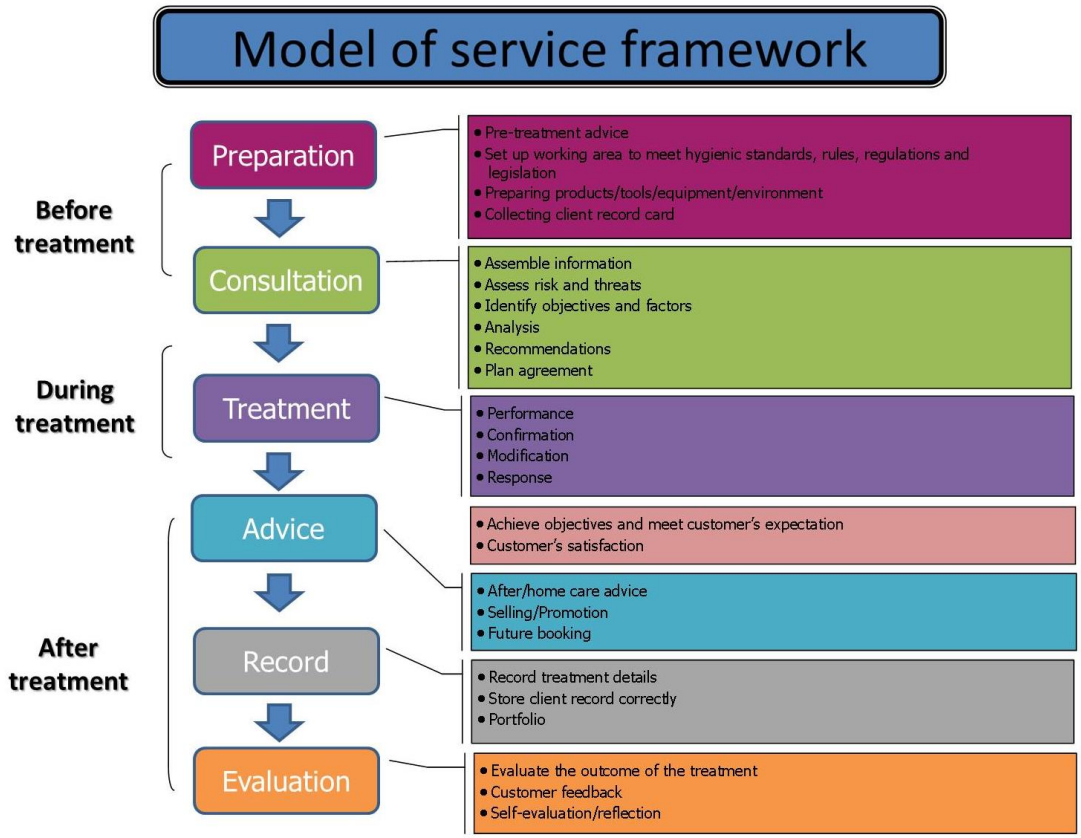
The list of importance of beauty professional competences

* Please give a score to indicate the importance
(1 is the least important; 7 is the most important)
*If it is non-applicable, please specify N/A

Attributes that HE beauty graduate should possess....		**Please '✓' according to its importance** **1** is the **least** important ◄——————► **7** is the **most** important						
Adaptability		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Flexibility / Resilience		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Attention to detail		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Commitment		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Cooperation with others		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Creativity / Imagination		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Decisiveness		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Dependability /Responsibility		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Passion for the work		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Honesty / Integrity		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Initiative / Proactive		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Reliability		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Positive attitude to work		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Self-motivation		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Timekeeping / Punctuality		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Stress / Emotional management		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Empathetic		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Caring attitude		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Drive to learn		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Hard working		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Confidence		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Work ethics		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
Others: Please specify		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐
		1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐	5☐	6☐	7☐

4: Models Testing

4-1 Model 1: Service Model



Q4-1-1: Do you agree that the service quality could be assured if the model is implemented into the industrial practice?

Agree: _____

Disagree, why? _____

Q4-1-2: Do you agree that the service model could accelerate teaching and learning if it is implemented into education?

Agree: _____

Disagree, why? _____

Q4-1-3: Do you agree that the service model could standardise the difference between education and industry?

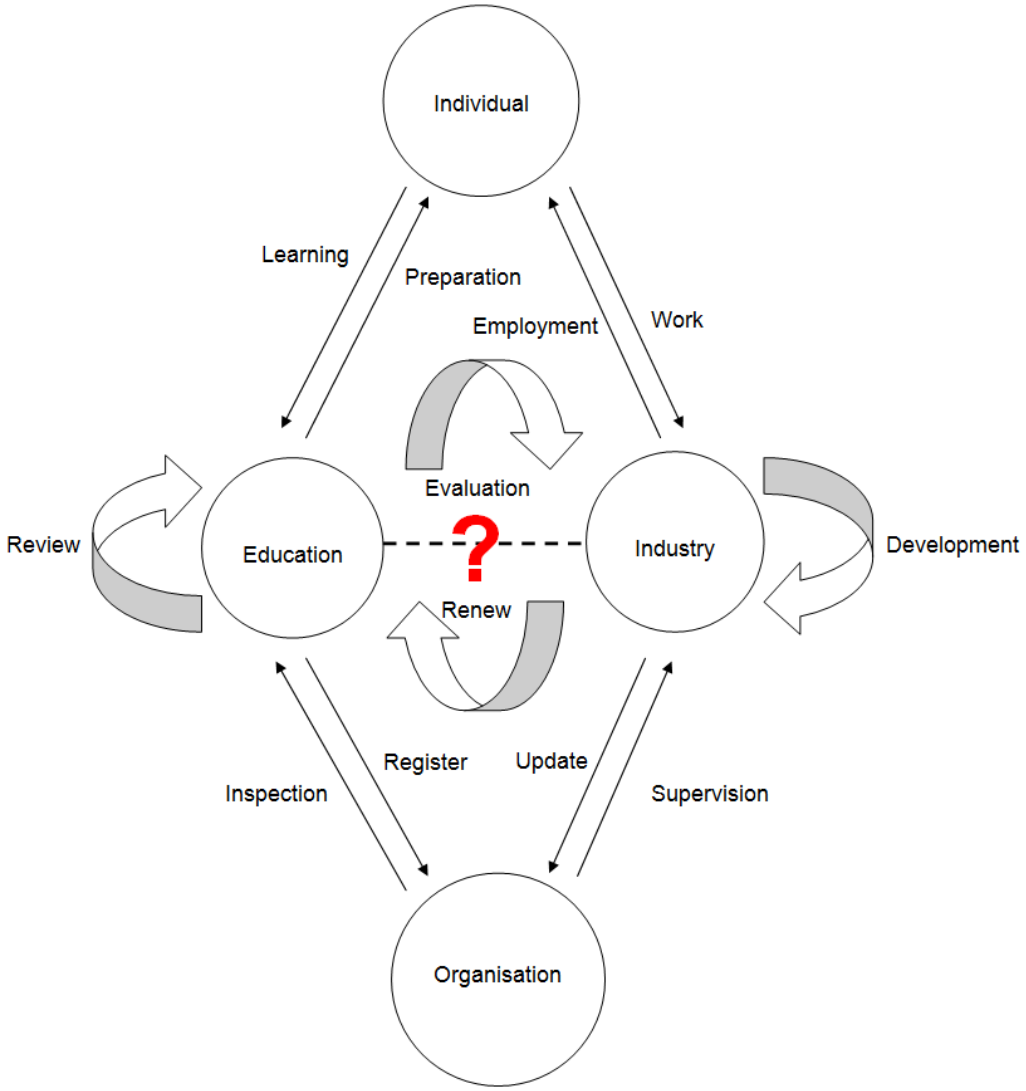
Agree: _____

Disagree, why? _____

Q4-1-4: Do you agree that the service model could be applied to all or the majority of treatment applications?

Agree: _____

4-2 Model 2: Work Placement Model



Q4-2-1: If the '**?**' indicates an establishment of co-ordination agency or coordinator, would their existence assist the communication between education and industry?

Comment: _____

Q4-2-2: Do you think which sector (government, education or industry) should be responsible for establishing this coordination agency or delegating the coordinator? And why?

Comment: _____

Q4-2-3: What three core competences do you think that the co-ordinator should possess?

Comment: _____

Appendix Q: Auto-ethnographic experiences in Taiwan and the UK

Previous auto-ethnography experiences in Taiwan

	Date	Hours	Work experiences
Auto-ethnography as a learner in Taiwan	01/09/85-01/06/88	N/A	Diploma in Home Economics (Group of Cosmetology and Styling), National Chai-Yi Home Economics Vocational High school, Taiwan
	08/09/90-01/06/92	N/A	Diploma in Home Economics (Group of Cosmetology and Styling), Tainan Junior College of Home Economics, Taiwan
	07/09/98-05/07/00	N/A	BSc Cosmetics Science, Chia Nan University of Pharmacy & Science, Taiwan
Auto-ethnography as a practitioner in Taiwan	01/08/88-31/07/89	N/A	Beauty consultant of Elizabeth Arden
	Issued in 1992	N/A	Republic of China Certificate of Technician - Beautify Class C
	Issued in 2000	N/A	Republic of China Certificate of Technician - Beautify Class B
	01/08/89-01/08/03	N/A	Teaching & Skills Qualification(legal requirement to teach), awarded by Department of Education, Taipei City Government in April 2001 (Certificate No.90012)
			Part-time as a beauty therapist in a beauty salon and freelanced as a make-up artist
	15/08/03-20/08/05	N/A	Self-employed as a trainer for Taiwan's National Occupational License and freelanced as a semi-permanent make-up tattooist
Auto-ethnography as a lecturer/assessor in Taiwan	01/08/92-15/08/98	N/A	Full- time lecturer in Cosmetology and Styling, Londer Vocational High School, Taiwan
	01/08/00-31/07/03	N/A	Full- time lecturer in Cosmetology and Styling, George Vocational High School, Taiwan
	08/00-08/02	N/A	Skills Certification invigilator

Auto-ethnography experiences in the UK

	Date	Hours	Work experiences
Auto-ethnography as a learner in the UK	08/09/08-15/07/09	N/A	NVQ Level 2 in Beauty Therapy NVQ Level 3 in Beauty Therapy NVQ Level 3 in Artistic Make-up & Special Effects
Auto-ethnography as a practitioner in the UK	01/2005	N/A	Hobbs Fashion Show
	01/10/09-15/12/09	N/A	Skill share project: Photoshoot
	07/03/09	7	Rainbow charity event: Offering Manicure treatment
	08/05/09	3	Beauty contest: Miss Derby
	10/05/09	3	Photoshoot: Programme cover
	22/05/09	3	Beauty contest: Miss Leicester
	05/06/09	3	Beauty contest: Miss Models
	14/06/09-20/06/09	20	Concordia Youth Theatre musical production: 'The Like of Us'
	11/07/09	8	Fashion show
	20/07/09	6	Beauty contest: Miss England
	30/08/09	4	Photoshoot-Lingerie
	15/07/10-31/07/10	N/A	Beauty salon
	12/09/12	6	Key Theatre Production 'Yeoman'
	19/06/14 – 21/06/14	N/A	Little Theatre musical production: Zigger Zagger
	17/05/14-18/12/14	82	Film production: The Monochrome Spy
Auto-ethnography as a lecturer, assessor, internal verifier in the UK	23/10/09-24/09/10	N/A	South Thames College, London
	13/09/10-31/07/14	N/A	Leicester College
	12/09/2010-22/11/2010	N/A	PTLLS (Preparing to teach in Lifelong learning sector)
	10/10/12	N/A	Level 3 Certificate in Assessing Vocational Achievement
	05/04/2011-19/04/2011	6	Assessor Certificate Workshop
	15/01/14-29/01/14	21	IV Workshops
	01/07/2014	N/A	Level 4 certificate in Assessment and Quality Assurance (Internal Verifier certificate)
	05/02/14-19/02/14	N/A	Level 2 in Equality, Diversity and Inclusion
	26/11/2010	3	VRQ standard
	22/08/11	6	VRQ training
	20/09/12	2	e-portfolio training
	19/09/11	10.5	Olympia Beauty Exhibition
	05/10/11	13.5	World Skills Exhibition
	05/06/13	11	World Skills Competition
	31/03/11 - 19/05/11	36	Industrial Special Effects project (Work-based learning project)
	07/03/2013	5	Industrial project - sculpting
	19/05/2011	2	Embedding Equality and Diversity
	22/09/2010	1	Safeguarding training
	22/09/2010	1	Health & Safety training

	Date	Hours	Work experiences
	14/11/12	1	Hygiene training
	09/11/11	2	Standardisation - eye treatments
	23/05/12	1.5	Standardisation – Camouflage make-up
	04/06/12	1.5	Standardisation – Body treatment

Appendix R: Tree map

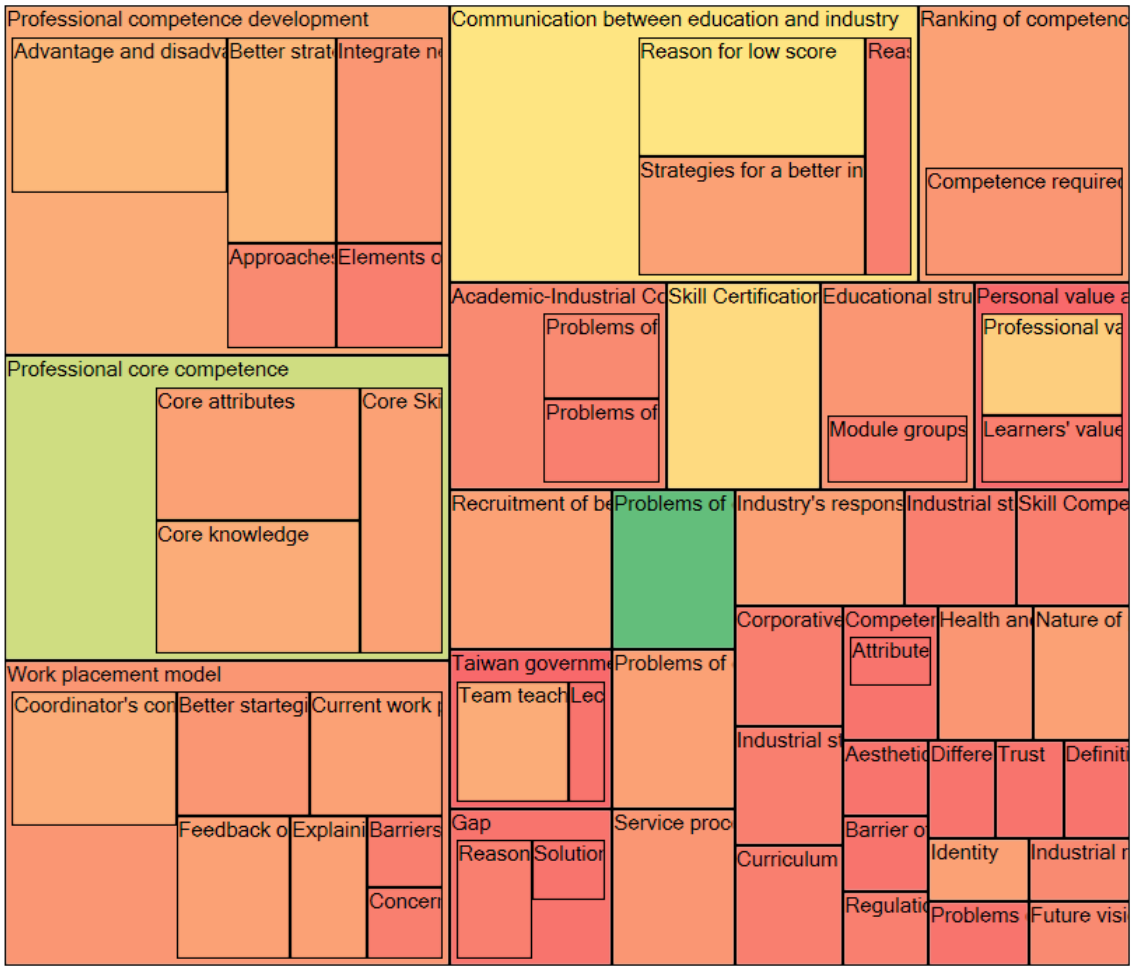


Figure R-0-10: Sample of Tree map

Appendix S: Conference paper

Hsiao, I.-C. & Baines, E., 2013. A lens comparison of Vocational Education and Training in the beauty sectors in Taiwan and the UK. In *The Asian Conference on Education*. Osaka, Japan: iafor. Available at: http://iafor.org/archives/offprints/ace2013-offprints/ACE2013_0240.pdf.

Appendix T: EMUA presentation

Impact & Collaboration: A Discipline Specific Focus

An infrastructure of collaboration between education and industry: a study of the UK in contrast to Taiwan

I-Chun Hsiao; Dr. Emily Baines

De Montfort University, Leicester, UK

Abstract

A mismatch between education and industry has been a challenge for Taiwan for decades. Collaborating with industry has become an answer for tackling the issue: however, the problem has not been alleviated. Therefore, balancing inputs in the collaboration and keeping communication active is important.

Through document analysis and auto-ethnographic study of the beauty sector in the UK in contrast with Taiwan, it was found that the UK has a nationally agreed standard to calibrate the differences: meanwhile, professional bodies provide a platform for education and industry to share knowledge with the involvement of third party authorities in the collaboration. The feedback from interviews in Taiwan found that the communication between education and industry is misinterpreted and the collaboration is one-sided wishful thinking, rather than reaching a mutual interest.

The outcomes of the study are the models and recommendations proposed to standardise the core content of teaching and practice while allowing the flexibility to maintain individuality; to ensure learners gain valuable work experience to develop their competences under appropriate support and objective measurement; and to facilitate effective collaboration between involved stakeholders.

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